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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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REINDORSING JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS FOR NEW YORK CITY

THE June *School Review* carried an article by Professor Philip R. V. Curoe, of Hunter College, which he called "New York City Examines Its Secondary-School Conscience." In the article he reviewed the history of junior high school reorganization in the city, stating that committal to it by the Board of Education dates back to 1919 and reporting that by September, 1938, eighty-one junior high schools were in operation and others were planned for opening in the near future. The title of his article was prompted by the appointment by the Board of Education of a committee assigned to survey the city's junior high schools "for the purpose of determining whether the 6-3-3 plan of school organization should be followed, or whether the public schools should revert to the historically older 8-4 organization, or whether some other plan should be followed." The following report, published in a recent issue of *School and Society* and drawing on the *New York Times*, indicates that the committee has seen fit to reindorse the junior high school.

A recommendation to make junior high schools a permanent part of the New York City public-school system was made in a report presented recently by a committee, members of which have been working on the problem since their appointment by the Board of Education a year ago.

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During the last ten years the Board of Education has expanded the 6-3-3 plan (six years of elementary school, three years of junior high, and three years of senior high). On the other hand, it has continued with the traditional 8-4 program (eight years of elementary school and four years of senior high school). A year ago the Board of Education mapped out a six-year building program. But it decided that it would have to determine the future policy of the school system before it embarked on its projected construction plans. The committee, therefore, was appointed to study the problem.

According to this report, as summarized in the *New York Times*, various traditional elementary schools were compared with the newer junior high schools, and the evidence indicates that the 6-3-3 plan is superior to the 8-4 type of educational program.

It is urged that the eight-year grade school, now in effect in 50 per cent of the system, be ended as soon as possible, and it is suggested that all future schools, wherever feasible, be built along the newer lines of the junior high school plans.

Recommendations for the improvement of the junior high schools, as they now exist, are also made by the committee. It is proposed that girls receive shop training in electrical work and in woodworking and boy pupils "in cooking and some of the other household arts."

The committee found, in studying shop provisions for the junior high school student, that "general differentiation of shop activities into those for boys and those for girls has led to a narrowing of the industrial-arts experiences of both sexes."

According to the committee, the "junior high school system is suffering from an enforced growth." This has resulted in including some of the schools in buildings not adapted to the needs of the junior high schools. It is suggested that each school be surveyed and improvements made where possible and that, if the school building or location is found inadequate, it should be discontinued.

The existing practice of dividing junior high school students into three groups—academic, commercial, and industrial—is opposed. It is pointed out that children are too young while still in junior high school to decide what future courses to take.

What these pupils actually need, it is suggested, is a sound general education, courses of study in basic subjects adapted to their abilities and interests, and experiences in the fields of appreciational, applied, and industrial arts.

One is reminded, by contrast, of the procedure followed in Chicago in 1933 touching the junior high school. The Board of Education in our second largest city did not see fit to investigate the promising beginning that had been made in junior high school reorganization but, by edict and without a hearing, wiped out the units en masse, thereby forcing reversion to an obsolete pattern of organization.

FINANCIAL PREDICAMENT OF THE SCHOOLS

THE following brief article appeared in a summer issue of the *New Republic* under the title, "Education on the Skids." It was written by Denny Hammond, who, according to the *New Republic* "is completing work for a degree in business administration in City College" of New York City. Of late, scattered reports of the financial distresses of public schools here and there have frequently appeared in print, but few attempts have been made at compiling and generalizing from them. It behooves us to know the full extent of inroads on our educational programs. The situation presented is distressing, and it should be provocative of herculean efforts to offset what seems to be in some quarters a sinister trend. One may doubt, however, that the manifestations described quite rise to the proportions of placing "education on the skids," if by this expression the author of the article intends to suggest that our promising beginning toward an adequate system of schools is on the way out. His partial proposals for remedying the conditions suggest that his pessimism does not reach that far.

There is scarcely a state in the Union that can look you square in the eye and say, "We haven't a single school that isn't in excellent condition, financially." Shorter terms, salary cuts, and consolidations seem to be the order of the day, with closed schools and payless paydays less predominant, but definitely present.

American schools, on the whole, weathered the depression pretty successfully. The situation didn't become acute until well into 1932; the bottom was reached in 1934, when school expenditures dropped 17.8 per cent below 1930, and by 1936 things were approaching normal again. This present dilemma is rooted in two things: careless manipulation of school finances and an embarrassing and "unplanned" recession.

Most schools finance their building programs through bond issues and meet running expenses largely through local real-estate taxes. Therefore their income must not only cover current expenses but must provide for bond retirement as well. The latest government figures place the American school debt at over \$3,000,000,000. The interest on this amount averaged 6.8 per cent of the total expenditures for education, and in three states—Florida, New Jersey, and North Carolina—interest payments represented more than 10 per cent of the total expenditures. In addition, more than 70 per cent of the school revenue is derived from county and local tax receipts and appropriations. Thus the disastrous effects of a recession, with its lowered tax assessments and uncollectible taxes, become obvious.

Fundamentally, most of the school difficulties can be blamed upon the

"county" or "school-district" system which we adopted during the nineteenth century. This system sets up small, decentralized areas governed by school boards whose business acumen is often open to question. More than one school board pays its secretary a percentage of what it spends. Most state legislatures have set a borrowing limit and a property-tax limit, but beyond this have done nothing. Left to itself, a county can do some amazing things. It can start out with too expensive a school building, and then, when the bonds come due, simply refund them. If there's been a deficit, the refunding can be stretched a point to include that, too. "School warrants" and "tax-anticipation notes" are other ingenious ways to say "deficit." When the debt limit and tax limit are reached, the situation becomes acute, as it did in Dayton, Ohio. There the schools were closed down on December 12, 1938. Conneaut, Ohio, Woburn, Massachusetts, and many other cities were forced to do likewise. And this reckless financing has by no means stopped. In January, 1939, American schools borrowed more than \$10,000,000.

If at all possible, other means short of closing are used, such as consolidations, salary cuts, and short terms. If these are not practical, the school can run up a deficit. Ohio, for instance, is now \$17,500,000 in debt, largely because of a \$10,000,000 shortage in the anticipated sales-tax returns. At mid-term, Philadelphia's schools were \$7,500,000 in the red, and next year's prospects are not much brighter. Harrisburg is in no position to help, for Pennsylvania has been very hard hit by uncollected real-estate taxes—one company alone defaulted on \$939,954. The situation is so bad in Pennsylvania that six thousand teachers have received no salary for as much as ten months. Arizona, Arkansas, Connecticut, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Tennessee are the states in the gravest difficulties.

Georgia constitutionally guarantees her students a seven-month term. But, faced with a \$5,200,000 deficit, the legislature adjourned without appropriating the necessary money. Schools in forty-one counties closed as a result. Only the collection of \$1,500,000 in inheritance taxes from the estate of the late Alfred I. du Pont saved Florida from a \$750,000 deficit.

As their property-tax income is reduced, the schools have turned to the states for aid, but here the results have not been encouraging. According to a survey of thirty-six states made by the American Federation of Teachers, eleven cut their state aid from the 1936 figure. Michigan, with a drop of \$19,000,000—50 per cent—headed the list. Even New York State, for years the educational leader, has cut state aid \$10,000,000 for 1939. This means the loss of almost a thousand teaching positions in New York City alone.

The latest government figures on short terms cover thirty-one states and indicate that one out of every four school children received from 90 to 170 days' schooling. (The national average is 173 days, slightly more than eight and one-

half months.) Ninety-two per cent of North Carolina's 905,518 pupils received from 90 to 170 days' instruction, 78 per cent in Alabama, 40 per cent in Indiana.

When a school system reaches its limit in both borrowing and taxing, it has but one recourse: salary cuts, long vacations, consolidations, cuts to the bone and half through the bone. It is no answer to say that our schools are excellent and that they can well afford to absorb small economies. Our schools are *not* excellent. More than 2,500,000 children have no school to attend—and another 2,500,000 might as well stay at home, so poor is the education they are offered. Several states provide less than \$30 per pupil for current yearly expenses. Telling America's schools to retrench is like telling a man on relief with a family of ten to feed on \$10 a week that he simply can't spend so much for food.

Even the W.P.A. education projects are being cut, despite the magnificent work they have done. Free lunches, training for the blind, adult-education projects, all are going. Among other things, the W.P.A. has taught 1,500,000 illiterates to read and write. But only a skeleton of its program will be left. A 40 per cent cut is being carried out.

Dependent as our schools are upon property taxes, their greatest hope lies in a business upswing. Short of that, some sort of federal aid is needed to help sorely pressed states. Federal aid is also the one thing that can rectify the maldistribution of school income and school need. (Southern farmers have 17 per cent of the children, $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the national income.) Two bills providing for federal aid to the states are before Congress now, and one of them, the Thomas-Pittman bill, seems likely to pass in this session or the next.

Another constructive move would be a trend away from American schools' dependence upon property taxes for 70 per cent of their income. A broader basis of support is needed—a need that can better be supplied by the state or federal government than by local communities.

FEDERAL AID FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

AN OFTEN-MENTIONED socio-economic trend of recent decades that is at once unmistakable and of distressing import for youth in these difficult years is technological unemployment. In addition to keeping youth out of work, the forces back of this trend are postponing, or raising, the school level at which vocational education is appropriate. Presumably, vocational education should be given, not early in the prospective worker's schooling, but near its end, so that the occupational understandings and skills will be available for application with maximum effectiveness. The position taken in the report on vocational education to the President's Advisory Committee on Education is that the socio-economic trend referred

to above point to junior-college years as the appropriate level for vocational education.

In the circumstances it is significant that certain junior colleges of California are now offering federally aided vocational preparation. Explanation of the origin and the nature of the development of the programs in these junior colleges is provided in the following paragraphs of a letter from J. C. Beswick, chief of the Bureau of Trade and Industrial Education in California's State Department of Education.

Believing that there was great need for providing vocational training for a number of trades on a higher level than that of the senior high school, I included in our California Plan for Trade and Industrial Education for the period 1932-37 provision that vocational instruction except teacher training must be of less than college grade and must be carried on under the administration of, or in co-operation with, the secondary schools of the state—senior high schools and junior colleges. This was approved by the California State Board of Education and the Federal Board for Vocational Education. Junior colleges in this state are designated as secondary schools.

Starting in a small way we have promoted this program, and it has gained widespread recognition in our state as a very efficient and satisfactory type of vocational training. More and more interest is being evinced in the program by industry and labor, as well as by educational leaders.

There is no danger that provision for technical institute programs on the junior-college level will lead to the inclusion of too many such vocational programs on this level to the detriment of programs in the senior high schools, as they are being organized in California only in trades which may be classified as the "aristocratic trades." There will always be a place for vocational courses on the senior high school and trade-school level. Great care has been exercised, also, in the preparation and following of organized courses of study, that the instruction may at all times be eminently practical and that it will not become too technical, with the result that we should have neither engineering nor bona fide vocational courses.

Material submitted with his letter by the informant shows that the work is given in eighteen centers, all public institutions listed as junior colleges. The most frequent offering is in aeronautics, but the full range of the offering includes also in one or more of the "institutes" each of the following, named in the order of declining frequency: automobile repair, electricity, printing, petroleum technology, landscape architecture, architectural drafting, carpentry, cosmetology, dental assistant, hotel and restaurant management,

machine shop, mill cabinet, painting and decorating, radio engineering, trade dressmaking, and welding.

For persons who may be perplexed over the description of the courses as "of less than college grade," even though they are given in junior colleges, it may be stated that this requirement is in conformity with the Smith-Hughes Act under the provisions of which federal aid is administered. In all probability junior-college authorities are willing to acquiesce in this characterization of the work because students taking it would seldom ask for transfer credit in colleges and universities for these courses. Nevertheless, it would seem desirable that the act be revised by removal of this restriction on the level at which federally aided vocational training may be given.

Rumor has it that the arrangements for federal aid for vocational education in junior colleges are being made or considered in states other than California. A letter from Assistant Commissioner J. C. Wright, in charge of vocational education in the United States Office of Education, reports that a special bulletin on the subject is in prospect.

One further observation may be ventured—one bearing on the increased popularization of junior-college education which will result from the requirement that federally aided programs be tuition-free. The local public junior colleges in California levy no tuition charges to residents of the districts maintaining them. Many public junior colleges in other states are tuition-free. Spread of the plan of vocational education to public junior colleges generally would tend to make all such institutions tuition-free since, manifestly, nonvocational programs calling for payment of tuition could hardly hold their own in competition with free vocational education. Moreover, on the assumption that arrangements for drawing federal aid would be reasonably flexible, junior colleges would make efforts to share in the aid.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE innovations described below are concerned with an occupational survey by pupils, a mimeographed guide for school visitors, activities for character education, and a four-year program of

orientation and supplementary education. The four schools reporting are scattered to as many states.

An occupational survey by pupils in Grade VIII Regular readers of this feature will recall that it once included a description of a project investigating garbage disposal in Ashtabula, Ohio. The project was carried through in the Harbor High School of that city by pupils at the junior high school level under the direction of Troy A. Snyder, a teacher in the school. The project has received much attention as an admirable instance of pupil participation in community affairs.

From the same school now comes the report of another project involving utilization of community resources which has been carried on under supervision of the same teacher, namely, an occupational survey of Ashtabula (with a population of about twenty-five thousand) by pupils in a course in occupations in Grade VIII. The brief description here is based on letters received by the editor from four pupils in this grade: Harland Jylha, Glenn C. Wilhide, Jr., Myrtle Wirth, and Lillian Wuorimaki.

The work on the project was done by two class sections in the course, one working on the distribution of occupations for 1934 and the other on the distribution for 1939, the purpose of including the two years being to ascertain occupational trends. The aims of the project were to discover the number of different occupations in the city, to find the number of persons engaged in each occupation, to determine the vocational opportunities in Ashtabula, and to acquaint the pupils in the classes with the many different occupations available. The procedure in the project involved assigning to each pupil a certain number of pages in Polk's Ashtabula City Directory. Names and occupations of persons appearing in the assigned pages were written on slips of paper. The slips were gathered, sorted, and classified on shelves secured for the purpose. A total of 363 different occupations was found. These were classified under eight headings, namely, unskilled laborers, semiskilled workers, skilled manual workers, skilled white-collar workers, subprofessional occupations, minor supervisory occupations, business occupations, and professional

service. The percentages of workers represented in the different groups were computed. The magnitude of the project is suggested by the fact that, for 1934 and 1939, 7,779 and 9,625 persons were listed by occupations. The results of the tabulations were mimeographed, and each pupil received a copy.

Some of the observations by the pupils in their letters deserve special mention. Reference was twice made to the likelihood of error because of inconsistency in the designations of occupations in the directory, some persons, for example, being reported as leather-workers and others as tannery-workers. One pupil reported his estimate that not more than 15 to 20 per cent of the occupations require a college education.

It is hardly necessary to point out the values to pupils in sharing in such a project. Also, the information resulting from the project is available for subsequent classes in the course in occupations and for guidance in the school.

A mimeographed guide for visitors to the school Among publications recently received is a "Guide for Visitors on Some Highlights of the Work and Organization of the Evander Childs High School, New York, N.Y." The publication contains about twenty-five mimeographed pages. In addition to a foreword by Hymen Alpern, principal, it is made up of five main sections, headed "Organization," "Experimental and Special Courses," "Character Training," "Appreciation and Skills," and "Statistics." Suggestive of the nature of the specific content are the subheadings under these main sections, such as "The Honor School," "The Institute of Adult Education," "Class for the Bedridden," "Remedial Speech Work," "The Evander Code," "Helping the Economically Underprivileged," "Our Library Murals," and "Getting Practical Business Experience." The page of statistical information shows, among other things, that the school enrolled 7,730 pupils and was operating on four overlapping sessions. A guide of this kind should be found helpful in many schools as a means of giving visitors an understanding of the scope and the nature of programs and activities. It should also save the time of school staff and pupils.

Activities that are planned to educate for character In the Lincoln High School at Ferndale, Michigan, of which Ralph Van Hoesen is principal, unusual success is attending efforts to give significance to pupil organizations, in particular the Hi-Y and the Girl Reserves. Three years ago the membership of the Hi-Y included no more than twenty-five boys, only a few of whom were active. Since then the membership has mounted to sixty-five, and it has been found necessary to place a limit on membership and to have boys make application for it. The club meets every two weeks at the close of a school day and also at a few night sessions. Initiations have developed in impressiveness. During the past two years the club has sent representatives to the Cranbrook and to the state Hi-Y conferences, has made it possible for needy and worthy boys to go to summer camps for a week or more, and has held district meetings to which local clubs of southern Oakland County have been invited. In conjunction with the Girl Reserves the club has sponsored a "Christmas-tree parade" and an "all-school Sunday," to be subsequently described.

The Girl Reserves have three advisers and more than 150 members. Among activities of this group have been the following: supplying gifts and a program each year before Christmas for the Juvenile Home in Pontiac; assisting the Hi-Y in the Christmas-tree parade; holding meetings in which outside speakers, faculty members, and panel discussions made up the programs; assisting with all-school Sunday; and joining with the Hi-Y in sponsoring all-school dances. The group held a party the week before Thanksgiving, admission to which was ten cents and an article of food. These and other resources made it possible to distribute Thanksgiving baskets of food to needy families.

The Christmas-tree parade sponsored each year to assist the Goodfellow organization is held Wednesday morning preceding the Christmas holiday. A large Christmas tree is set up in the main hall of the school, and tables are placed at the side of the tree along the corridor wall. Pupils, to the accompaniment of the school orchestra and choir, file past the tables and leave gifts of food and clothing to be turned over to the Goodfellows for distribution.

The first step toward the all-school Sunday, in which the high

school co-operates with the ministers of the churches, is the circulation of a questionnaire in which pupils are asked to indicate their preferences of questions to be discussed by the ministers. The ministers are notified of the pupils' preferences so that they may use one of the questions as the basis of their sermons in the morning service of all-school Sunday. Each church makes special reservations at the morning service for pupils attending that church. In the evening a special service with an outside speaker is held for adults in one of the churches, while a service with two visiting speakers is held for young people in the high-school auditorium. Light refreshments are served at the close of the service by the parent-teacher association.

Joining group guidance with general education Charles E. Wingo, the principal of the Argo (Illinois) Community High School, has submitted a description of a program of "Group Guidance Articulated with General Education." The program was developed in relation to a belief that a wide range of information and understanding might be presented to high-school pupils to supplement and stimulate classroom experiences and individual guidance. The materials were developed to be used in activity periods, home rooms, and study groups in Grades IX-XII (all grades) of the high school.

A faculty committee of seven, including the principal, developed and organized the program. This committee was selected on the basis of experience and training in various fields and "represented a cross-section of the departments of the school." It enlisted the help of all faculty members, groups of more advanced pupils in the school, and the personnel directors of two large local industries, the Corn Products Refining Company and the Electro-Motive Corporation. The two men from industry developed a six-week unit for the Senior year on "How To Apply for a Job." It may be desirable to explain that the community of Argo is located in an industrial setting in the suburbs of Chicago. Approximately 10 per cent of the graduates of the high school enter higher institutions.

The guidance materials have been developed and presented over a period of three years. Many alterations have been made on the basis of faculty and pupil criticism. The range of information of the topics

has been gauged to the four class levels of the school, and pamphlets for pupil use have been assembled for each school year.

Space cannot be spared for the full list of topics. The following topics by school years are illustrative: first year—features of the school, honor clubs, the marking system, study habits, school customs and traditions, history of the school, choosing a course, required courses; second year—assignments, school citizenship at school gatherings, keeping up appearances, safety for pedestrians, general requirements for graduation and admission to colleges; third year—parliamentary law, the meaning of scholarship, kindness, state institutions, vocational guidance, hobbies; fourth year—how to look for a job, business ethics, architecture of homes, radio, budget, consumer education, commencement plans.

Comments by Principal Wingo point to acceptance and approval of the program by pupils, faculty, and community.

DIVERSE PUBLICATIONS IN PAPER COVERS

LATE spring and summer brought their quota of educational publications in paper covers, many of them useful for workers in secondary schools. We name and comment on several that may appeal to our readers as more timely than others. For certain of these on which a price is set, the charge may seem high in view of the small number of pages, but it is not unusual for fugitive publications to be issued in small editions.

The third yearbook of Washington's principals Mention has previously been made of the published reports of proceedings of the Washington High School Principals' Association. This organization's third yearbook (of seventy pages), issued in May, bears the breezy title *Cooling the Hot Spots in High School*. The major portion of the content is distributed to ten chapters, labeled "Guidance," "Curriculum," "Criteria," "Study Hall," "Correlation," "Student Conferences," "Contests," "Awards," "Standards," and "College Entrance." The chapters contain the papers presented at the principals' annual parliament and are largely devoted to descriptions of innovations and other practices in the schools represented. Copies of this yearbook may be purchased of

the secretary-treasurer of the association, Frank Jones Clark, of the Broadway High School in Seattle.

Attitudes and preferences for school supervision Professor J. M. Hughes, of Northwestern University, is author of *The Attitudes and Preferences of Teachers and Administrators for School Supervision*, the report of an investigation that carries this line of inquiry farther than has previously been done. The large number of teachers and administrators co-operating in the investigation were asked to rate (1) the purposes of supervision, (2) the types of organization of supervision, and (3) the activities of supervision. The report extends through forty-eight pages and is published as Northwestern Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, Number 12. Copies may be secured at fifty cents of the School of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

A bibliography of text-books for social studies The National Council for the Social Studies has issued in bulletin form a *Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies*. The work of preparing it was done by a committee, of which Wilbur F. Murra was chairman. The complete list is in three parts, one each for elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school. In each part books are listed by subject; for example, the items in the senior high school list are distributed to "American History"; "World History, including Ancient, Medieval, and Modern History"; "English History"; "Economic History"; "Geography"; "Economics"; "Sociology, including Social Psychology"; "Government"; "Problems of Democracy"; and "The Constitution." Included in the bulletin is a section by William E. Vickery presenting "Some Suggestions for Selecting a Social-Studies Textbook." The publication is Bulletin Number 12 and is purchasable for fifty cents of the secretary-treasurer of the council, Howard E. Wilson, whose address is 13 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Survey of California's secondary-school libraries A bulletin of more than eighty pages published by the California State Department of Education in survey-report form is entitled *The Secondary School Library in California*. Descrip-

tion of the libraries in the state is provided by chapters on "Library Books and Materials," "Librarian and Library Staff," "Financing the Library," "Availability and Use of the Library," and "Library Housing Facilities and Equipment." A useful feature of the bulletin is the reproduction of several floor plans of libraries.

Helps in development of the program in guidance The Occupational Information and Guidance Service, launched some time ago by the United States Office of Education under the auspices of the Vocational Division, is providing substantial evidence of its activities. Two mimeographed documents are at hand designed to be helpful to schools in developing guidance programs, particularly with reference to vocational guidance. One of these, "Guidance Programs for Rural High Schools," was written by Paul W. Chapman, consultant to the service and dean of the College of Agriculture in the University of Georgia. A brief introduction indicating the problem of guidance in small schools is followed by descriptions of guidance programs in two rural high school situations in New York State. These descriptions are in turn followed by a "Recapitulation in Terms of Acceptable Practices" and reproductions of suitable guidance forms.

A larger publication is "Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance" by Giles M. Ruch and David Segel, two specialists in measurement. In his Foreword Assistant Commissioner J. C. Wright states that the bulletin "outlines the general nature of the individual inventory, the significant types of entries thereon, and discusses in some detail the possibilities and limitations of scientific measurement of certain aspects of the individual." He says further that "the discussion is directed to those who admittedly feel that they still lack much of the essential background for guidance activities."

Pupil personnel, guidance, and counseling The cycle of the *Review of Educational Research* has turned again to an issue devoted to *Pupil Personnel, Guidance, and Counseling*. This issue is Number 2 of Volume IX. Following the usual plan for the *Review*, this number was prepared by a committee of specialists in the field with Philip A. Boyer as chairman. The

digest of the literature is organized by chapters entitled "Characteristics of Pupil Population," "School Organization and Classroom Adjustment," "Programs of Guidance and Counseling," and "Techniques of Guidance and Counseling." The concept of guidance dominating this number is much broader than that represented in the bulletins from the Office of Education just described. The charge made for each issue of the *Review of Educational Research* is one dollar. Orders should be placed with the American Educational Research Association at the headquarters of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D.C.

EDUCATION OF THE PUBLIC IN HEALTH AT HARVARD

A NEW course designed to train school supervisors, and especially supervisors of education in health, in the important technique of educating the public concerning the protection and the promotion of health is being offered at the Harvard School of Public Health beginning this month.

The course, open to college graduates and extending over one or two years, has been planned in recognition of the growing realization that those who are engaged in health-education work must not only understand individual health measures but must also know what public health is, what its aims are, and what administrative measures are used in the fulfilment of its aims. Because an understanding of educational techniques is equally essential for the student, the Harvard Graduate School of Education will co-operate with the Harvard School of Public Health in giving this new course.

There will be no prescribed curriculum. After an individual conference to determine his needs, each student will be assigned a personal program in the light of prior training and experience. Credit may be granted for previous academic work in public health and in educational methods and for experience in the field.

The training offered in this course is based on the principle that the person going into the field of health education needs, first of all, a basic knowledge of anatomy, physiology, and the fundamental medical sciences. He will need to know the diverse functions of health departments and how such departments are organized. The student will, therefore, according to his individual needs, be assigned to work

in the Harvard School of Public Health, in the Harvard Graduate School of Education, in the Harvard Faculty of Arts and Sciences, in Radcliffe College, and in the Harvard Medical School.

WHO'S WHO FOR SEPTEMBER

The authors of articles in the current issue E. C. CLINE, principal of the Oliver P. Morton Senior High School, Richmond, Indiana. PAUL W. HARNLY, principal of the Senior High School, Grand Island, Nebraska. KIMBALL WILES, research assistant in the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University. HOWARD R. ANDERSON, associate professor of education at Cornell University; chairman of Junior and Senior High School Social Studies Departments in the public schools of Ithaca, New York, and director of student teaching in co-operation with Cornell University. FRANK P. WHITNEY, principal of the Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio. WILLIS H. REALS, associate professor of education at Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. RAYMOND G. REESS, teacher of the social studies at the McKinley High School, St. Louis, Missouri. PERCIVAL W. HUTSON, professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh.

The writers of reviews in the current issue CLIFFORD HOUSTON, director of the Extension Division and associate professor of education at the University of Colorado. ARTHUR E. TRAXLER, assistant director of the Educational Records Bureau, New York City. HAROLD H. PUNKE, professor of education at Georgia State Womans College, Valdosta, Georgia. R. E. BLACKWELL, director of the Division of Information and Publicity at Western Reserve University. VERA L. PEACOCK, head of the foreign-language department at Southern Illinois State Normal University. JACKSON R. SHARMAN, head of the Department of Physical and Health Education at the University of Alabama.

CONSUMER EDUCATION

E. C. CLINE

Oliver P. Morton Senior High School, Richmond, Indiana

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THE current emphasis on consumer education has rightly directed attention to the problem of more efficient buying. The special units or courses recommended for the commercial and the home-economics departments, for example, meet a real need. The fact that the school offered more or less satisfactory courses in salesmanship for years before it occurred to educators to attend to "buymanship"—at least as an antidote for the effects of the former courses—is another instance of what should be a humbling experience and a shock to complacency in curriculum "standpattism."

However, the great enthusiasm for consumer-education courses now seems to be about to blind school men to the real and much broader problem. The neglect of the problem of buying as compared with the attention paid that of selling is only a *special case*. The real problem which this awakening should present is the fact that *all* secondary education has, in the past, emphasized the producer phase, as against the consumer phase. English composition was unpopular because it was taught as if all pupils were to become writers or proofreaders; literature was taught as if all pupils were to become professional critics or editors; economics teachers were trying to turn out economists; chemistry teachers were trying to produce chemists; art teachers, artists; and so on through the entire offering. The real problem, therefore, is not merely to make amends for a single case of error but to reorganize the whole secondary program so as to give adequate treatment to the broad field of consumption in every area of life.

Before this treatment is carried farther, examination must be made of one of the fundamental assumptions in the field of education—that of *culture*. Some attention has been given recently to an intelligent extension of the meaning of culture in education. In this

broader sense "culture" is defined as the product, not only of the privileged few, but also of the many who *cultivate* their activities with as much skill, sense of beauty, and feeling for service as they can develop. Culture is the product of everyone to the extent that he uses *his* tools in *his* endeavors to make the best contributions that *he* can make. The concept of culture must, however, be extended still further. Culture is more than the product of individuals, more than the number of such products extant at any time; culture also includes the capacity to *use* for human betterment, individual and social, the existing cultural products. The measure of the level of culture in any given society must take cognizance of both these phases: the culture produced and the culture used. In the case of use, the same principle of universality prevails: all individuals, not merely a favored few, use cultural products in some degree. Increasing the culture mass, therefore, can be accomplished only by increasing both the culture-production capacities and the culture-consumption capacities of all individuals.

In the democratization of secondary education the validity of the first factor has been recognized, and the public has shown its appreciation by crowding the schools with children. Because many Americans would call the consumption phase less "practical" than the production phase, the former has been almost entirely neglected. The increase of leisure-time needs will soon impress even the most practical persons with the need for greater and more discriminating use of cultural opportunities.

For these reasons it will be unfortunate, from the standpoint of both social and individual welfare, if the present narrow conception of consumer education blinds us to the larger implications of the problems.

In the field of music, for example, consumers, potentially, far outnumber producers because all people are potential consumers. The capacity of every individual to enjoy music can be increased; and it is primarily by all these increments of appreciation, ranging from the very small to the greatest, that the level of music culture will be raised, not by the increase in the number of talented producers. Some cry out that jazz and "swing" have lowered the level of music appreciation in this country. The fact is that they have

merely indicated where the level is—and where it will remain if nothing positive is done about it in secondary schools. The cultivation of capacity to use music in better ways is justifiable whether one looks at it from the standpoint of individual growth and pleasure, of the social culture mass, of the discovery and stimulation of dormant talents, or of the very material gain that will come to the producers of music themselves. Music-appreciation classes should have in them every pupil in school.

Precisely a similar case can be made for provision of opportunities to learn to use more intelligently current literature, art, movies, the radio, political machinery, scientific knowledge, health facts, social conversation, household equipment, aviation, and the myriad other possibilities for better living that now confuse rather than help us.

The prevalent discussions of buying may do harm in another sense. They often present the consumer philosophy as one of aloofness, distrust, and abstinence—as an actual need for decrease in consumption. Here again procedure valid in special cases must not be fallaciously generalized. The obvious conclusion of the description of consumption presented in this article is that living is enriched by *increased*, as well as by more discriminating, consumption; we need *more* interests as well as deeper and better interests. The general aim of consumer education in the broad sense will lead to more rather than less consumption. There is no limit to available good things to use.

One more danger lies in wait for the teaching of consumer education in the broader sense, and that is the stubborn belief in so-called "indirect learning," the most cogent argument for which has been the unfortunate discovery that "taught" rhymes with "caught." Whenever educators have not known how to teach something or have been afraid to teach something, the problem has been solved by declaring that such things are best learned indirectly anyhow—a declaration which merely means, in practice, that the items have not been taught at all. Sex is a case in point; appreciation is another. Appreciations and evaluations loom large in consumer education and should be learned by exactly the same psychological and educational principles that are valid in all kinds of learning. Therefore the objectives of consumer education should be set up and directly

aimed at by appropriate methods just as they are in producer education.

In music consumption, for example, the teacher analyzes what one does when listening to music for purely personal enjoyment and then simply sets the class situation so that pupils may have the experiences of understanding and of listening (not as critics but as members of a concert audience), together with all the other experiences that are involved. The pupils learn here, as elsewhere, merely by doing the appropriate things. In science such factors as these are considered: biography, the romance of scientific achievement, disinterested research, comparison of present advantages and well-being with hardships and lacks of former times, intelligent utilization of scientific products, the problem of constructive rather than destructive uses of science, possible adventures for this generation in unknown realms of knowledge, the mysterious universe, the pride in human capacity to solve the mysteries—these factors become the content of learning. The only mystery in these areas of education is that educators persist in considering such learning mysterious.

In closing, it should be said that the term "personal-use education" denotes what has been discussed better than does the term "consumer education." The latter term has been used in this article in an attempt to show that what some writers have already called "personal-use experiences" are the same as those also called by the other term.

ATTITUDES OF HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS TOWARD EDUCATION

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★

THE IMPORTANCE OF PUPIL ATTITUDES

AS A high-school principal, the writer had often wondered what the pupils think about the whole process of education to which they have been subjected for twelve years. Do they know "what it is all about"? Do they understand the objectives and purposes? What teaching methods seem best? Should education be confined to the classroom, or does it have a more extensive task? Is the necessity for professionally trained teachers evident? Have the pupils developed any conscious standards for evaluating a worth-while program of education?

It seems almost self-evident that high-school pupils ought to have an intelligent understanding about these things. Present educational psychology teaches that the possession by the pupils of definite goals, purposes, and knowledge of the whole situation is necessary for the best learning. If the pupils are to become capable of intelligent self-direction, it is essential that they have some standards of value, that they have practice in applying the standards, and that they understand at all times their own particular position in regard to the entire educational program.

In addition to the fact that pupils learn better if they understand why they use certain classroom devices and teaching materials, their attitudes or opinions concerning these things may have an important bearing on public support of education. In a few years these Seniors will be voting citizens, taking an active part in community affairs. As they become older, most of them will probably tend to become more conservative, rather than more liberal. Then, too, if pupils themselves understand the objectives to be reached and understand why some learning situations are superior to others, their enthusi-

astic support should assist in educating their parents, relatives, and neighbors. Many adults receive from children their major impressions of what the best kind of educational practices are. School administrators and teachers should always realize that their most vital contacts with home and community are obtained through the pupils themselves.

These facts are so self-evident that it seems unnecessary to stress them further. Nevertheless, replies from the Nebraska schools included in this study indicate that only a few of the schools have given any attention to the definite development of desirable attitudes in these areas. In most schools the teachers seem to leave such teaching to chance. In general, what teaching is done in this area follows the usual practice in subject-matter fields, much of which consists in factual textbook learning without regard to changes of attitudes and new ways of acting.

GENERAL PLAN OF THE INVESTIGATION

With this background in mind, the writer decided to investigate the present attitude of high-school Seniors toward those elements of educational experience which forward-looking teachers consider most valuable. The specific problems of this investigation were formulated as follows: (1) to prepare an instrument which would measure as adequately as possible attitudes toward certain aspects of education, particularly the attitudes of high-school Seniors; (2) to apply this instrument to a group of educational experts (members of the Society for Curriculum Study) for the purpose of validating the scale and securing a basis of measurement; and (3) to apply this instrument to a sample of 10 per cent of the high-school Seniors in Nebraska.

There were two rather distinct parts to the study. The first was concerned with the development and the construction of an instrument which would measure with some validity and reliability the attitude of high-school Seniors toward the aspects of education to be considered. The second related to the use made of the instrument.

The attitude scale constructed follows the Likert technique.¹ It

¹ a) Rensis Likert, *A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes*. Archives of Psychology, No. 140. New York: Columbia University, 1932.

b) Edward A. Rundquist and Raymond F. Sletto, *Personality in the Depression*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1936.

consists of eighty statements about education, equally divided into the following four divisions: "Some Purposes of Education," "Some General Educational Policies," "What Shall We Teach?" "How Shall We Teach?" Each division contains ten statements worded from a progressive position and ten worded from a conservative position. When the scale was applied, the subjects were asked to react to each statement in the manner shown in the following example.

All children in the same class should be doing about the same things. Strongly agree (5). Agree (4). Undecided (3). Disagree (2). Strongly disagree (1).

The assignment of one point to the most liberal reaction and five points to the most conservative position for each statement made it possible to add these together and obtain a total numerical score for the entire instrument. Since this attitude scale contains eighty statements, a score of eighty indicates the most liberal position while four hundred indicates the most conservative position.

Comparison of the odd versus the even items gives an uncorrected reliability coefficient of $.87 \pm .02$. When corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, this coefficient becomes $.93 \pm .01$. The validity of the scale is shown by the appearance of differences in the direction expected among Seniors, Curriculum Society members, teachers, and Kiwanians. In the light of the evidence gathered, the scale seems valid for a group of individuals, but no attempt was made to establish its validity for comparison of individuals within a group.

The instrument gives three kinds of data: the total score, representing a general attitude of progressivism or conservatism; the total score for each of the four divisions, indicating a general attitude in these areas; and the reaction to each statement, permitting investigation of attitude toward the separate aspects included in the study.

USE MADE OF THE ATTITUDE SCALE

The scale was applied to a sample of 10 per cent of the high-school Seniors in Nebraska and to a select group of members of the Society for Curriculum Study. Replies were received from 1,572 Seniors located in 55 high schools. The sampling plan was based on size of enrolment, geographical location, and kind of school. All results were summarized for boys and for girls and for the four kinds of schools or groups into which the schools naturally fell: schools accredited

by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; schools fully accredited by the University of Nebraska but not by the North Central Association; rural, consolidated, and county schools; training high schools connected with the State Teachers Colleges. While the problem of investigation was to ascertain the attitude of all Seniors, a secondary problem was that of determining whether there were marked differences between boys and girls.

For the purpose of obtaining a representative progressive position, the instrument was sent to a select list of 168 members of the Society for Curriculum Study. Replies from 130 of these members were received and were compared with the 1,572 high-school responses. The importance of the study is emphasized by the large percentage of replies received from these educational leaders, the many voluntary letters inclosed, the requests for copies of the blank and for permission to use it in education classes, and interest in the results to be obtained from the study.

TOTAL ATTITUDE SCORES

The total scores obtained by applying the instrument to Nebraska high-school Seniors and to members of the Society for Curriculum Study are presented in Table 1. In the case of these total scores, the whole instrument is considered as a measure of the common attitude variable which might be called "progressivism" in education. This total is a composite reaction toward the eighty aspects of education contained in the statements used.

The mean scores for the groups follow trends in the direction predicted when the groups in the sampling technique were established. The statistical significance of these trends is interpreted in Table 2. The difference between the scores of the Curriculum Society members and the total high-school group is 50.94. The ratio (21.14) of this difference to its standard error is unusually large and indicates a marked difference in reaction.

The mean difference of girls over boys is 4.64. While the difference between the means is not especially large, the ratio (3.60) of the difference to its standard error indicates that girls have a somewhat more liberal attitude than boys toward the aspects of education being measured.

The differences between the four school groups are slight and inconclusive. The lack of marked differences between the four groups

TABLE 1
TOTAL SCORES ON SCALE OF ATTITUDE TOWARD EDUCATION MADE
BY EACH OF EIGHT GROUPS

Group	Number of Cases	Range of Scores	Standard Deviation	Mean Score
Curriculum Society members. . .	130	86-198	26.42	127.08 \pm 2.32
High-school Seniors:				
Boys.	696	84-286	25.05	180.59 \pm 0.95
Girls.	876	93-278	25.75	175.95 \pm 0.87
Both.	1,572	84-286	25.54	178.02 \pm 0.64
Types of schools:				
North Central Association schools.	893	91-286	25.47	176.78 \pm 0.85
Rural schools.	236	103-236	24.98	180.72 \pm 1.63
Accredited by University of Nebraska.	358	84-278	26.12	179.61 \pm 1.38
Teachers College training schools.	85	92-227	24.40	176.76 \pm 2.65

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF MEANS OF TOTAL SCORES FOR
VARIOUS GROUPS STUDIED

Groups Compared	Difference between Means*	Standard Error of Difference	Diff. S.E. diff.
Curriculum Society members vs. all high-school Seniors.	50.94	2.41	21.14
Boys vs. girls.	- 4.64	1.29	3.60
North Central Association vs. rural schools	3.94	1.84	2.14
North Central Association vs. University accredited schools.	2.83	1.62	1.75
North Central Association vs. Teachers College schools.	- 0.02	2.78	0.01
Rural vs. University accredited schools.	- 1.11	2.14	0.52
Rural vs. Teachers College schools.	- 3.96	3.11	1.27
University accredited vs. Teachers College schools.	- 2.85	2.99	0.95

* A minus sign preceding a difference indicates that the second-named group is the more liberal.

of high schools seems to be one of the important results of this study. Apparently size of school; amount of equipment; professional train-

ing, experience, and salaries of teachers; adequacy of libraries; activity programs; and variety of courses of study have little bearing on the attitudes toward educational practices.

REACTIONS TO EACH STATEMENT

The pattern of response to each of the eighty statements gives a clue to those areas in which Seniors are liberal or conservative and offers suggestions for changes in teaching procedure designed to modify attitudes.

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES OF VARIOUS
GROUPS TO STATEMENT 1*

GROUP	NUMBER OF CASES	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS				
		Strongly Agreeing	Agreeing	Unde- cided	Dis- agreeing	Strongly Dis- agreeing
Curriculum Society mem- bers	130	0	2	1	24	73
All high-school Seniors. . .	1,572	5	36	7	45	7
Boys	696	7	40	9	39	5
Girls	876	5	32	6	49	8
North Central Association schools	893	7	34	7	45	7
Rural schools	236	3	38	8	43	8
Schools accredited by Uni- versity of Nebraska	358	7	38	8	41	6
Teachers College training schools	85	2	32	7	53	6

* The statement reads: "Mastery of the textbook facts is the most important objective of class work."

Table 3 gives the tabulation of results obtained for the first statement of the instrument. Similar tables and studies of their implications were made for each of the remaining seventy-nine statements. The data in Table 3 indicate that the total Senior response to the first statement of the scale shows a marked division of opinion. It is clearly bimodal, with the large majority "agreeing" and "disagreeing." The attitudes expressed are directly opposed to each other and are not merely degrees of feeling. Apparently, nearly half the

Seniors see education as a process of mastering textbook facts. This result is an implication of a formal-discipline attitude which manifests itself from time to time in the response to other statements. This attitude of the pupils is in sharp contrast with that of the Curriculum Society members. Not only do all but 3 per cent of the members oppose this viewpoint, but 73 per cent register strong opposition.

The bimodal distribution is consistent for the four groups of schools. When one considers that the North Central Association includes the larger schools with more adequate equipment, better trained teachers, and diversified programs of instruction, while the rural group is composed of small schools with little equipment, inexperienced teachers, and limited course offerings, it seems almost impossible that the percentages of responses in the two types of schools could be so nearly the same. One of the striking results of this study is the finding, in the case of the seventy-nine other statements (data for which are not included here), of the same similarity of response for these groups.

A careful interpretation of the tables prepared for the eighty statements indicates the following areas in which the Seniors registered their greatest conservatism.

Educational practice should change slowly.

School work should be fitted to the class average rather than to the needs and abilities of individual pupils.

Disciplinary values are very important, that is, the college-preparatory course is best and the most difficult subjects usually are most valuable.

More attention should be given to formal drill.

Use of school buildings should be confined to school work.

The school should not educate for leisure time, and places too great emphasis upon fads and frills.

Classroom teachers do not require much definite professional preparation.

In general, Nebraska salaries of teachers are satisfactory.

It would be advisable to establish control of education in outstanding educational experts located in Washington.

School buildings need not be architecturally beautiful.

Learning how to compete successfully is more important than learning how to live co-operatively.

Areas revealing the most liberal Senior attitudes are:

Controversial issues should be taught; that is, pupils should learn to seek explanations, causes, and consequences of social and economic questions, should learn to be open-minded about public questions, and should discuss the merits of both sides of social-economic questions.

Pupils should actually participate in community activities as a part of regular school work.

The school should help pupils find out what they can do best.

Interest rather than compulsion should be the dominating urge to learn.

We are not spending too much on education.

Pupils want to learn about the most progressive methods of education.

Education should change as civilization changes.

There should be much opportunity for original creative work.

SUGGESTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

This instrument¹ offers educators a means of ascertaining the general position of their pupils on the eighty statements. It should assist in planning units of instruction designed to change unsatisfactory attitudes. It should also assist in planning educational work with parent-teachers' associations and similar community groups. The tables of scores obtained from Nebraska schools should be valuable in interpreting results obtained. The requests from educators for blanks for use in classes and discussion groups show that the instrument has possibilities as a teaching device in the professional preparation of teachers.

To the extent to which pupil attitudes reflect the kind of teaching that they have received, this study indicates a definite need for more functional teaching related to the individual abilities, interests, and needs of boys and girls. If school men expect to make progress in changing attitudes, they must liberalize their school programs and make certain that pupils and patrons understand the objectives taught and the methods used to reach the objectives.

The reactions to such problems as the adequacy of salaries for teachers, use of school buildings by outside agencies, and the desirability of control of education locally or in Washington probably reflect community policies and sentiment; but the fitting of learning

¹ The attitude scale may be obtained by sending a stamped, addressed envelope to the writer.

situations to the individuals of the class, values to be secured in various courses, desirability of changes in methods, and use of "fad-and-frill" subjects are areas that reflect school practice and the degree of understanding which the school gives to them. Superintendents and principals of the schools in which the tests were given have commented that they have done little to make pupils conscious of the personal values involved in the aspects of education studied in this instrument. If one believes that pupils should have an understanding of the educational program which leaders in the profession deem of most worth, a knowledge of the areas in which the most conservatism is found, as revealed by this study, should be of guidance in providing learning experiences designed to develop the attitudes desired.

NEW WAYS OF UTILIZING SCHOOL NEWS BROADCASTS

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★

TEACHERS should vary the type of classroom utilization of radio news programs. Too often an effective procedure is found, and it becomes the only way of dealing with the supplementary material that comes to the classroom via the radio. "Variety is the spice of life" is a maxim that is as true in the classroom as it is in the factory or on the farm. Interest is destroyed by monotonous routine whether the unchanging procedure be the continual use of the same teaching methods or the daily performance of the same task in the same way. Moreover, in addition to boring the teacher, monotony in the classroom diminishes the effectiveness of the learning situation.

A variety of methods is as necessary in the utilization of news programs as in other teaching activities. When radio news programs are first introduced into the school schedule, they provide a pleasant break in the daily routine. After a short time, however, listening to a news commentator becomes a matter-of-fact procedure. From this point the teacher who is continually introducing new techniques of utilization is, in most cases, the successful teacher.

Most teachers realize this fact. For the majority the difficulty is the devising or the discovering of new procedures for using the programs. Invariably the teacher asks himself: "What is there to do in addition to conducting a class discussion of the news items dealt with in the program? Are there any other methods of utilization that will meet the needs of my class and promote the attainment of objectives that I deem desirable?" The answer to both these questions represents a challenge to the teacher who is willing to attempt new procedures. Perhaps the full range of possibilities for using news programs can best be indicated by brief descriptions of a few of the types of utilization that the writer found in elementary-school classrooms in Rochester, New York.

In Rochester the seventh- and eighth-grade classes listen to a fifteen-minute news program, "News Today—History Tomorrow," produced every Friday by the Rochester School of the Air. The utilizations that the teachers make of this program range from examples of complete pupil planning to extreme teacher domination, but they are suggestive of types of activity that a wide-awake, mentally alert teacher might follow.

When a teacher is preparing a class to listen to a news program, the most common activity in Rochester is to have the pupils match their interpretation of the weeks' events with that of the commentator. This activity serves as a means of determining the extent to which the pupils are intelligently evaluating the importance of passing events. The procedure is to have the class select the news stories of the week which will probably be most significant in determining the trend of future events. During the broadcast the selections of the class are checked with the items mentioned on the program. No inference is made that the commentator is a more competent observer of the contemporary scene. Rather, the pupils have the feeling that they are engaging in the process of selecting the important news events as collaborators of the commentator. When they disagree, they write the commentator a letter giving reasons for their disagreement.

An interesting variation practiced in a seventh-grade English class is to have the pupils take turns from week to week playing commentator before the regular broadcast. No pupil receives the assignment a week ahead. Instead, in the period before the broadcast one pupil is chosen by his fellows to present his comments on the events of the week, just as Kaltenborn or Lowell Thomas might be asked to talk extemporaneously on the world-situation. Naturally, all children prepare themselves for the opportunity of being class commentator.

Some classes prepare for the broadcast by using the time preceding the program for rearranging and bringing up to the minute their "news-item map." A news-item map is a large world-map tacked on the room bulletin board in such a way that important news clippings can be pinned in a space around the edge. A bright-colored piece of string and a pin with a large head connect each clipping with the

spot on the map where the event occurred. By this last-minute readjustment of the news-item map, the pupils familiarize themselves with the areas of the world in which the important events occurred during the week and with names of the cities and regions that may be mentioned in the broadcast.

Other pre-broadcast activities include having the pupils indicate the topics that they would like to hear discussed, class discussion of newspaper cartoons that have appeared in the local papers, summarization and discussion of the broadcast of the previous week with a brief outline of developments during the week, selection of clippings (brought to school by class members) that should go into the class scrapbook, and reports on the latest news programs heard outside the school. All these are immediate preparatory steps that have been preceded by outside reading of newspapers and by listening to news programs.

After a preparation of the type just described, the class is ready to hear the program. In most cases the class members listen much as they would listen to a news program at home. As the teachers point out, the pupils have already participated in activities that arouse interest in the program. A requirement of overt evidence of attention, such as taking notes, produces an artificial situation and transmits to the pupils the suggestion that the teacher really doubts the sincerity of their interest.

Utilizations of the informal listening situations vary. Many follow time-worn techniques, such as assigning reports on certain topics mentioned, promoting a debate on the most crucial issue presented, or even giving a brief quiz on the factual material in the broadcast. Others use the broadcast as a springboard to a new unit of work or as a means of stimulating research activities.

All these devices are well known and have been used by the average teacher for years. They are not illustrative of responses to the challenge to originate plans for utilizing broadcasts. Certain teachers, however, are using new follow-up procedures. These teachers are in the process of devising new methods which make school a less monotonous life for their pupils and which illustrate to fellow-teachers the possibilities in program utilization.

One teacher follows the broadcast with a classroom "Information

Please," in which five pupils are selected as "experts" on the various phases of contemporary news, science, foreign policy, Congress, national defense, etc. The five "experts" are seated in the front of the room, and the members of the class ask questions that have been stimulated by the broadcast or by their outside reading. If the "experts" are unable to answer the queries addressed to them, other members of the class are called on to do so. The personnel of the staff of "experts" changes from week to week. Each child is desirous of discharging the duties of the "expert" satisfactorily, and, if he is not chosen for the honored position, he tries to raise intelligent and challenging points about the news.

An interesting variation of this procedure is to have each pupil write a question on a sheet of paper. These are collected and placed in a "question box." After the broadcast each pupil draws a written question from the box and answers it for the class, using information from the broadcast and from his previous reading. This method provides for a more equitable distribution of time among the pupils.

Either of these methods may be criticized because they tend to center attention on the acquisition of factual matter alone. The justness of such a criticism depends on the teacher. Some teachers develop in their pupils the ability to ask questions that call for interpretation of events as well as surface knowledge.

An original and satisfying method of providing for pupil interpretation of the news is to have the children draw cartoons. The pupils listen to the broadcast, select the news item that they deem most significant, and then draw a cartoon illustrating the event as they understood it. The writer's experience is that this method is extremely effective. Children of the upper elementary-school and junior high school age like to draw. Most of them are creative in their thoughts. Evidence of their desire to interpret through drawing can be seen even in their caricatures of their teachers. Only children whose initiative has been crushed by a domineering teacher or pupils who feel that their product will not be appreciated or respected will fail to respond to this technique. If the teacher provides favorable conditions, the results will be astoundingly indicative of the pupils' grasp of the events depicted and will also provide opportunity for creative expression.

Another way of providing for expression of pupil initiative and originality is to have the pupils plan the utilization of the broadcast. At the end of the program one teacher selects a pupil to summarize each section of the broadcast. The pupil is permitted to utilize any technique that he feels will provide fruitful experience for the members of the class. The four or five pupils who are to summarize the material (there are usually five sections to the program) form a committee and quickly decide how to conduct each part of the follow-up. Such co-operative planning prevents duplication and develops the spirit of co-operation in the pupils. This teaching device adds variety and interest to the class, develops a sense of responsibility, and stimulates initiative, but it probably will not succeed on the initial introduction into a classroom that is controlled by teacher dictation during the remainder of the school day.

For teachers who are most interested in developing critical thinking on the part of their pupils, probably the most common technique is to have the pupils bring newspapers to class and then compare the way in which specific news items are treated in the news broadcast and in the paper. Attempts to ascertain "the truth" develop critical-mindedness toward both the newspaper and the news broadcasts to which the pupils listen.

A variation of this method is to have the pupils listen to other news programs the night before the school news program and then compare the discussion of any news event by the commercial commentator with the comments concerning that event by the school news commentator.

These procedures are only a few of the techniques being developed. They are described here, not as perfect utilizations, but merely as stimulating suggestions. They are designed to indicate that any teacher who is willing to experiment, to make teaching a creative act, to exercise imagination can produce new utilization techniques—techniques that add variety and freshness to classroom activity. No supervisor or principal need worry about satisfactory utilization of radio programs by the teacher who is continually attempting new practices. Such a teacher is a growing teacher whose classroom is not dull or monotonous.

A NECESSARY PRECAUTION IN DIAGNOSTIC TESTING

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THE purpose of this study was to compare the effectiveness with which recall and recognition (four-response multiple-choice form) tests measure eighth-grade pupils' mastery of certain elements of content in United States history. Although several studies along this general line have been published during the past fifteen years, none of these has included a detailed analysis of the responses made by the same pupils to supposedly equivalent test items.

RELATED RESEARCH

Space does not permit a detailed review of even the most pertinent related research. The major conclusions reached, however, are briefly summarized and citations made to the appropriate studies. (a) The recall form is more reliable than the recognition type for a constant number of items (1, 4, 6, 8).¹ (b) Recognition types are markedly easier than recall forms (1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8). (c) Pupils can answer more recognition items than recall items per unit of testing time (3, 7, 8). (d) Correlations between recall and recognition forms are comparatively low even when the latter are corrected for guessing (8).² (e) Pupils prefer recognition to recall forms (3).

HOW THE DATA WERE SECURED

The test items used in this investigation are based on elements of content suggested by the eighth-grade course of study in United States history in the Boynton Junior High School of Ithaca, New

¹ Eurich (3) reports that there is little difference. Ruch and Charles (7) found the recall form less reliable than the five-response multiple-choice form.

² Magill (5) reported slightly higher correlations than Ruch and Stoddard (8), and Eurich (3) reported some that were higher.

York. Twenty-five recall questions based on topics covered during the first semester of 1938-39 were first prepared. The same questions were then stated in recognition form, the only difference being that four possible answers were added. The following examples suggest both the nature of the questions and the type of response expected of the pupil.

What country did England first eliminate as a colonial rival in North America? [Correct answer: Holland.]

(4) What country did England first eliminate as a colonial rival in North America? (1) Spain. (2) France. (3) Sweden. (4) Holland.

On January 18, 1939, the two mimeographed tests were administered to a total of 288 pupils in nine eighth-grade classes. In each case the recall form was administered first, and the papers were collected before the recognition tests were distributed. This procedure was followed since there is greater likelihood that a recognition exercise will suggest the correct answer to a recall question than that the recall question will suggest the answer to the recognition item. Exactly fifteen minutes were allowed for each examination. Necessary directions to the pupil, as well as sample exercises, were included on the tests themselves.

All the papers were scored by the same person, who was allowed to make no deviation from the scoring keys prepared by the writer. The papers were then arranged in alphabetical order as determined by the names of the pupils tested. Every third paper was selected for detailed analysis of results. The following tabulations were made in terms of this sampling: (1) the number of pupils, respectively, answering each recall question correctly, answering it incorrectly, or omitting an answer; (2) the number of pupils selecting each of the four responses to each recognition question or omitting an answer; (3) the answers to recognition questions selected by pupils who had answered the corresponding recall questions correctly; (4) the answers to recall questions of pupils who answered the corresponding recognition questions correctly.

The reliability of each form was found by the chance-halves method, and the coefficient of correlation between scores on the two forms was computed.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

It may be noted, from Table 1, that the recognition form is much easier than the recall form and about equally reliable. In view of the small number of items, the coefficient of correlation between the two forms was fairly high ($.81 \pm .024$). Since it would be possible in an hour period to administer a much longer examination, the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula was used to predict the reliability if each form contained 100 items. This coefficient, as shown in Table 1, is high. The Spearman-Brown correlation between two such long forms was also high (.94). The correlation between the two forms

TABLE 1
STATISTICAL DATA WITH REGARD TO TEST GIVEN IN
RECALL AND RECOGNITION FORMS

Item	Recall Test	Recognition Test
Mean score.....	6.46	11.10
Standard deviation.....	3.96	3.58
Reliability.....	$.82 \pm .023$	$.81 \pm .024$
Predicted reliability for test extended to 100 items.....	.95	.94

when a correction was made for guessing on the recognition test¹ was $.82 \pm .023$.

The results on corresponding items in the two forms are compared in Table 2. In each case the recognition item proved easier than the corresponding recall question. The greatest difference occurred in Question 14:

14. Who was the first great New England liberal? (1) Roger Williams. (2) Cotton Mather. (3) John Davenport. (4) Miles Standish.

Although sixty-one of the ninety-six pupils could select the correct response, "Roger Williams," to the recognition item, only five had earlier been able to supply this answer to the recall question.

It is even more important to discover what success in selecting the correct response to a recognition exercise was achieved by pupils who

¹ The score used for the recognition test was obtained by deducting one-third of the number of wrong answers from the number of right answers.

had answered correctly the corresponding recall question, and vice versa. These data are presented in Tables 3 and 4. It is apparent

TABLE 2
ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDING QUESTIONS ON RECALL AND
ON RECOGNITION FORMS OF SAME TEST

QUESTION	NUMBER OF PUPILS ANSWERING ON RECALL FORM			NUMBER OF PUPILS ANSWERING ON RECOGNITION FORM*				
	Right	Wrong	Omitted	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Omitted
1.....	21	66	9	47	15	<u>33</u>	1	0
2.....	39	40	17	<u>51</u>	22	9	14	0
3.....	24	61	11	<u>25</u>	59	8	4	0
4.....	77	10	9	6	1	<u>88</u>	1	0
5.....	1	77	18	22	52	4	<u>15</u>	3
6.....	37	43	16	23	<u>45</u>	4	23	1
7.....	42	45	9	5	25	6	<u>50</u>	1
8.....	36	46	14	<u>46</u>	33	4	13	0
9.....	44	29	23	1	7	<u>67</u>	21	0
10.....	22	47	27	27	<u>33</u>	14	20	2
11.....	5	77	14	10	28	<u>36</u>	<u>21</u>	1
12.....	30	49	17	44	10	<u>30</u>	2	1
13.....	18	33	45	<u>30</u>	10	34	13	0
14.....	5	26	65	<u>61</u>	3	0	32	0
15.....	31	48	17	19	23	<u>48</u>	5	1
16.....	19	37	40	37	<u>37</u>	4	14	4
17.....	30	52	14	49	2	5	<u>40</u>	0
18.....	45	36	15	24	3	10	<u>56</u>	3
19.....	21	25	50	<u>60</u>	9	5	14	8
20.....	34	41	21	2	<u>58</u>	8	27	1
21.....	9	37	50	21	<u>27</u>	7	39	2
22.....	8	33	55	37	19	<u>21</u>	15	4
23.....	14	44	38	10	<u>57</u>	3	24	2
24.....	8	77	11	72	2	1	<u>21</u>	0
25.....	1	33	62	31	24	20	<u>12</u>	9

* The underlined figure is the number of pupils making the correct choice on each question.

that most of the pupils who could recall the correct answer to a given question had a sufficiently certain grasp of content to enable them to reject, with little difficulty, the plausible foils provided for the corresponding recognition item. On the other hand, it would seem that many pupils were able to select the correct response to a given recog-

nition item although quite unable to supply the correct answer to the corresponding recall question.

TABLE 3
PERFORMANCE ON RECOGNITION ITEMS OF PUPILS WHO GAVE
CORRECT ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDING
ITEMS ON RECALL TEST

QUESTION	NUMBER OF PUPILS GIVING CORRECT ANSWER ON RECALL TEST	PERFORMANCE OF SAME PUPILS ON CORRE- SPONDING RECOGNITION QUESTION		
		Right Choice		Wrong Choice
		Number	Per Cent	Number
1.....	21	18	86	3
2.....	39	36	92	3
3.....	24	19	79	5
4.....	77	75	97	2
5.....	1	1	100	0
6.....	37	31	84	6
7.....	42	41	98	1
8.....	36	31	86	5
9.....	44	43	98	1
10.....	22	17	77	5
11.....	5	5	100	0
12.....	30	28	93	2
13.....	18	11	61	7
14.....	5	5	100	0
15.....	31	31	100	0
16.....	19	18	95	1
17.....	30	28	93	2
18.....	45	43	96	2
19.....	21	19	90	2
20.....	34	31	91	3
21.....	9	7	78	2
22.....	8	7	88	1
23.....	14	13	93	1
24.....	8	5	63	3
25.....	1	0	0	1

In this connection it is interesting to consider some of the incorrect answers to recall questions supplied by pupils who selected the correct responses to corresponding recognition items. Consider, for example, the results for the first question:

1. What country discovered an all-water route to the East near the close of the fifteenth century? (1) Spain. (2) England. (3) Portugal. (4) Holland.

Of ninety-six pupils, only twenty-one were able on the recall question to write the correct answer, "Portugal." Of these twenty-one pupils, eighteen were able also to select the correct response from the

TABLE 4
PERFORMANCE ON RECALL ITEMS OF PUPILS WHO MADE CORRECT CHOICES
ON CORRESPONDING ITEMS ON RECOGNITION TEST

QUESTION	NUMBER OF PUPILS MAKING CORRECT CHOICE ON RECOGNITION TEST	PERFORMANCE OF SAME PUPILS ON CORRESPONDING RECALL ITEMS			
		Right Answer		Wrong Answer	Answer Omitted
		Number	Per Cent		
1.....	33	18	55	14	1
2.....	51	36	71	8	7
3.....	25	19	76	5	1
4.....	88	75	85	7	6
5.....	15	1	7	13	1
6.....	45	31	69	8	6
7.....	59	41	69	15	3
8.....	46	31	67	13	2
9.....	67	43	64	15	9
10.....	33	17	52	9	7
11.....	21	5	24	14	2
12.....	39	28	72	5	6
13.....	39	11	28	14	14
14.....	61	5	8	19	37
15.....	48	31	65	9	8
16.....	37	18	49	5	14
17.....	40	28	70	10	2
18.....	56	43	77	8	5
19.....	60	19	32	13	28
20.....	58	31	53	18	9
21.....	27	7	26	8	12
22.....	21	7	33	7	7
23.....	57	13	23	20	24
24.....	21	5	24	14	2
25.....	12	0	0	4	8

four listed with the corresponding recognition question. Actually more pupils from this group of twenty-one answered the recognition item correctly than in the larger group of seventy-five who had failed on the recall question. On the other hand, a careful examination of the replies made to the recall question by the fifteen pupils who failed on it but answered correctly the recognition item reveals that

only two displayed even a glimmer of understanding. Their answers were "Portego" (probably a phonetic spelling of "Portugal") and "(Spain) Portugal" (a case of hedging). Of the others, six wrote in "Spain" or "Spanish"; two, "England"; and the others answered "France," "India," "Virginia," and "Italy," respectively. One omitted an answer. Obviously these pupils must have selected the answer to the recognition item on a slim margin of information.

The second question read:

2. What European country first established settlements in the West Indies?
(1) Spain. (2) England. (3) Portugal. (4) France.

Thirty-nine pupils were able to write the correct answer on the recall test, and, of these, only three failed to do as well on the corresponding recognition item. Of the fifteen pupils who answered the recognition item correctly but failed on the recall question, seven omitted an answer; four wrote "England"; two, "France"; and one each "Italy" and "Portugal."

To save space, it is suggested that the reader study for himself the data for the following questions.

3. What country was the leading colonial power at the close of the sixteenth century? (1) Spain. (2) England. (3) France. (4) Holland.

4. What was Virginia's most important export crop during the seventeenth century? (1) cotton. (2) corn. (3) tobacco. (4) rice.

5. What country did England first eliminate as a colonial rival in North America? (1) Spain. (2) France. (3) Sweden. (4) Holland.

6. What country's explorations most effectively opened up the interior of North America? (1) Spain. (2) France. (3) Holland. (4) England.

7. Who commanded the first expedition to sail around the world? (1) Drake. (2) Columbus. (3) da Gama. (4) Magellan.

Of the forty-two who correctly answered "Magellan" on the recall item in Question 7, only one was fooled by the foils included for the recognition item. On the other hand, eighteen who answered the recognition item correctly failed on the corresponding recall question. Of these pupils, three omitted an answer; one wrote in "Drake"; three, "Columbus"; three, "Spain"; and one each, "Raleigh," "Massicutas," "Ponce Adoleone," "Cortes," "Bornado," "Magellan and Drake," "Megyal," and "Marco A. Polo." Of course two of these eighteen doubtless had "Magellan" in mind, but the rest were hopelessly confused.

How the pupils answered the next four questions also is revealed in Tables 3 and 4.

8. What European country was first to gain great wealth from its conquests in the New World? (1) Spain. (2) England. (3) Holland. (4) France.

9. In what present-day state was the first permanent English colony established? (1) Florida. (2) Maryland. (3) Virginia. (4) Massachusetts.

10. What English colony made the greatest gain in population, 1630-1640? (1) Virginia. (2) Massachusetts Bay. (3) Plymouth. (4) Pennsylvania.

11. To what church did the Puritans belong? (1) Methodist. (2) Episcopalian. (3) Presbyterian. (4) Congregational.

One would expect this information to have been mastered by eighth-grade pupils who are studying United States history, and it is discouraging to note how many of them failed to select the correct responses to the recognition items; or, if they selected the correct responses, how many failed to answer the corresponding recall questions correctly.

It may be desirable to consider the twelfth question because the results illustrate a difficulty often encountered in scoring a recall item objectively.

12. Which U.S. university was first established? (1) William and Mary. (2) Yale. (3) Harvard. (4) Columbia.

Of the eleven pupils who answered the recognition item correctly but failed on the recall question, two supplied these answers: "Hartford" and "Harferd." Clearly these pupils (and many more in the total group) were handicapped by their inability to spell "Harvard." There may be a question whether their answers should not have been judged correct.

The data pertaining to the next item further illustrate the confused thinking of many pupils who are able to select the correct response to a multiple-choice question.

13. What type of local government developed in New England? (1) town. (2) county. (3) county-township. (4) parish.

Thirty-nine pupils selected the correct response, "town," on the recognition item. Of these, only eleven could answer the question correctly when the proper response was not suggested. Of the other twenty-eight, one-half omitted an answer; the others wrote: "governor," "one man rule," "charter form" (three times), "representi-

tive" (three times), "parliamentary," "demarcy," "each colony had a governor," "democratic," "social," and "Roger Williams."

To save space it may again be suggested that the reader study Tables 3 and 4 to learn how the following pairs of test items worked.

14. Who was the first great New England liberal? (1) Roger Williams. (2) Cotton Mather. (3) John Davenport. (4) Miles Standish.

15. What present-day continental European country contributed the greatest number of immigrants to colonial Pennsylvania? (1) France. (2) Holland. (3) Germany. (4) Sweden.

16. What eighteenth-century American has the best claim to being considered many-sided (able in many lines)? (1) Washington. (2) Franklin. (3) Hamilton. (4) John Adams.

17. Toward the colonists of what European country did the Iroquois show the greatest hostility? (1) England. (2) Holland. (3) Spain. (4) France.

18. What country suffered the greatest colonial losses in the war which ended in 1763? (1) England. (2) Holland. (3) Spain. (4) France.

In some cases it seems probable that the phrasing of a question discouraged and handicapped pupils in answering the recall form. For example, Question 19 reads:

19. What eighteenth-century power had the most liberal colonial policy? (1) England. (2) Holland. (3) Spain. (4) France.

A total of sixty pupils answered the recognition item correctly, but only nineteen of these pupils were able to do as well when no responses were provided. Of the other forty-one, twenty-eight omitted an answer to the recall question. That there were many who attempted an answer but had no real understanding of what the question called for is evidenced by these replies: "North," "Convention," "the new government," "trade law," "France," "Mass.," "Jamestown," "East India Co.," "Continental Congress," "hard," "New England," "Spain," and "strong central government." Obviously a teacher is in error who believes that all pupils answering this question in its recognition form have mastered the information called for.

The following questions completed the total of twenty-five items.

20. In what colony was established the first representative government in the New World? (1) San Domingo. (2) Virginia. (3) New Netherlands. (4) Plymouth.

21. What legislation by Parliament was the first specifically intended to

punish the colonists? (1) Sugar Act. (2) Intolerable Acts. (3) Townshend Acts. (4) Stamp Act.

22. What was the objective of England's first campaign in the Revolutionary War? (1) To cut the colonies in two. (2) To blockade the coast. (3) To subdue Massachusetts. (4) To conquer the South.

23. What was the purpose of early English exploration along the coast of present-day Canada and Newfoundland? (1) To discover gold. (2) To discover a water route to the East. (3) To find the lost Atlantis. (4) To find the great Newfoundland fishing banks.

24. During the seventeenth century, what class did most of the rough work in Virginia? (1) Negro slaves. (2) Free men. (3) Indian slaves. (4) Indentured servants.

25. How did mercantilism tend to affect the imports and exports of a mother-country? (1) Increase both imports and exports. (2) Decrease both imports and exports. (3) Increase imports and decrease exports. (4) Increase exports and decrease imports.

The data for these last questions suggest that recall questions requiring more than a one-word response not only prove difficult for the pupils to answer but are difficult for the teacher to score. Each answer has to be evaluated carefully even though a key is provided.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF NINETY-SIX PUPILS ACCORD-
ING TO THE DIFFERENCE WHEN THEIR
SCORES ON RECALL FORM ARE SUBTRACTED
FROM SCORES ON RECOGNITION FORM

Difference	Number of Pupils	Difference	Number of Pupils
10.....	1	4.....	18
9.....	3	3.....	14
8.....	4	2.....	12
7.....	8	1.....	2
6.....	15	0.....	3
5.....	15	-1.....	1

How utterly incapable many pupils are of formulating a reasonably adequate answer to a question which they are able to answer correctly when the correct response is suggested, appears when the results for Question 23 are considered. This question was answered correctly by fifty-seven pupils in its multiple-choice form, but only thirteen of these fifty-seven were able to phrase an adequate answer. That twenty-four of these fifty-seven pupils omitted the answer on

the recall form may perhaps be ascribed, in part, to the location of the item near the end of the test. On the other hand, these are some of the answers written in: "to found a claim of exploration," "to help with Christians," "to surround New England," "to get away from the American," "much rich soil and good climate," and "fur trading." Of course the majority of the incorrect answers supplied by pupils who answered the recognition form of the question correctly were less inadequate than these, but the fact remains that twenty of them were judged to be incorrect.

That the recognition form was consistently easier for the pupils tested appears from Table 5, which shows the differences when the pupils' scores on the recall form were subtracted from their scores on the recognition test. It will be noted that only four pupils failed to make higher scores on the recognition form of the test and that only one pupil made a lower score, and that by a matter of one point.

CONCLUSIONS

This study found the recall and the recognition forms about equally reliable (.82 and .81). The latter was markedly easier, as is shown by the mean scores of 11.10 and 6.46. The coefficient of correlation between the two forms (.81) was fairly high for such short tests, and a correlation of .94 was predicted if the tests were extended to include 100 items each. On the basis of these findings, one might conclude that recall or recognition forms are about equally valid and that they rank pupils in substantially the same order insofar as mastery of information in history is concerned. The greater ease of administering and scoring a recognition type of test would naturally make it preferable.

This conclusion of equal validity is not supported, however, by the findings growing out of the detailed comparison of pupils' answers to corresponding questions on the two forms of the test. The number of pupils who can select the correct response to a given recognition item but are unable to answer the corresponding recall question correctly is consistently greater than the number who can answer the recall question correctly but are unable to select the correct response to the recognition item. The replies written by pupils who answered a given recognition item correctly but failed on the corresponding recall question indicates that in many cases the pupils

possessed inadequate or positively erroneous information with respect to that question.

Under these circumstances it can scarcely be argued that the recall and the recognition tests serve the same function equally well.¹ For diagnostic testing, where discovery of the degree of insight to which the pupil has attained is important, it is to be recommended that teachers make frequent use of the recall form. If a teacher favors the use of tests of the recognition type, it is important that as a teaching procedure he ask his pupils to justify their answers—to explain why one response is held to be correct and the others wrong.

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¹ Bird and Andrew (1, 2) have shown that recall items more consistently discriminate between superior and inferior students in terms of a given test than do recognition items. Magill (5) has shown that a high percentage of inconsistency in responses to specific items exists in recall and recognition forms and that the inconsistency cannot be ascribed to the influence of constant factors.

ONE PRINCIPAL'S ACTIVITIES

FRANK P. WHITNEY

Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio

*

FROM time to time I ask various members of my staff to report their activities in some detail. Occasionally I recommend that, for their own benefit, as well as a basis for such a report, they keep a rather careful record of what they do for a week or two. Once in a while I take my own medicine and keep a log on myself. In looking through my desk, I find some notes of this sort covering my school activities in detail for two periods of one week each, from March 29 to April 2 and from April 12 to April 16, 1937.

These notes are here reproduced with no editing other than that necessary to make intelligible to the reader the "shorthand" in which the original notes were jotted down day by day. For obvious reasons fictitious names are substituted for the real names. This period in the life of a principal of a school of 150 teachers and 5,000 pupils may or may not be typical. Another period might easily present quite a different set of details, perhaps even less creditable than this set. The record was made for no other reason than that given above and with no thought of publication.

In no sense is the report presented as the picture of what a principal should do or even what this principal thinks he should have done. It has no merit whatever save as a truthful picture of what one principal actually did for two periods of five consecutive days. Anybody who takes the trouble to read this record of visits, conferences, and miscellaneous activities might well wonder how unity could be brought into such diversity. How this principal or any principal orders his life, keeps it from mere subserviency to endless routine, hopefully attempts to hold it to a steady course and to get somewhere, is quite another story.

Monday, March 29

Read correspondence.

Discussed curriculum changes with Miss Rawlins, dean of girls; building

supply cases with Mr. Lambert, the shop superintendent; tests with Mr. Marks, the first assistant.

Approved bulletin to teachers.

Conferred with Mr. Young on causes of failures in his five classes in American history; with Miss Grant on remedial work in girls' gymnasium.

Requested Mr. Rau and Mr. Watts to come in later this week for conference on failures in their chemistry classes.

Discussed with Mr. Marks the program of George Schwan, a boy who had been absent six weeks on account of a serious injury in one of our shops.

Conference with the record clerk and the head clerk on work done on the records of the seven hundred pupils entering Grade X B in September, 1932, in connection with the Cooperative Study; also with Miss Matson, head of the commercial department, on plans for completing the follow-up study on these pupils.

Interviewed two applicants for teaching positions.

Conferred with Mr. Allison on demonstration of some of his teaching in theory at the music supervisors' convention in New York; also with Mr. Shanklin in regard to a leave of absence to attend the meeting of the Middle West Society of Physical Education.

Telephoned the assistant superintendent concerning the reappointment of Miss Tracy; also conferred with Miss Rawlins on Miss Tracy's health and general fitness.

Talked with Roger Pratt, a Senior, about his chances of getting recommended to the Tower Club at Ohio State University.

Requested Miss Thatcher, an English teacher, to examine a long list of unused books in our library with a view to determining what use, if any, could be made of them.

Lunch in the teachers' tearoom, 12:45-1:15.

Discussed disposition of unused books in our library with the librarian.

Visited the library and a library-instruction class.

Arranged for conferences with regard to failures with two English teachers, Miss Hewitt and Miss Finkle.

Conferred with another English teacher, Miss Wendorf, on causes of failure in her English classes in Grade XI B.

Conferred with Mr. Young again, this time with regard to the construction of a graph showing relative distribution of P.L.R.'s [scores on probable learning rate] and the scores which his pupils made in American history.

Conferred with Mr. Larch on plans for the photography club.

Conferred with Miss Matson again on the conduct of the survey of former pupils.

Tuesday, March 30

Conferred with Mr. Marks on the selection and administration of achievement tests for honor-roll and high P.L.R. pupils.

Rewrote a letter to the editor of one of the Cleveland papers.

Conferred with Miss Finkle, also with Miss Hewitt, on marks and progress of their pupils in English in Grade XI B.

Made graphs showing distribution of marks according to P.L.R.

Gave some time to meeting a former employee of the Board of Education and discussing with him his application for a position as engineer in charge of construction at an Ohio college. Wrote letter to one of the trustees of the college, who happened to be a former classmate, recommending him.

Attended senior-high assembly, presented certificates for letters to basketball and gym teams, and talked eight minutes on sportsmanship and significance of athletics.

Took streetcar to Fenn College. Luncheon 12:00-2:00. Interesting information about Fenn College presented.

Principals' meeting after luncheon, 2:00-3:30. Discussion concerned principals' reports, athletics, and some routine matters.

Later at Board of Education building conferred with the director of research on content tests for pupils with high intelligence quotients.

Spent some time in the library.

Conferred with the assistant superintendent on Miss Tracy's case, also on the introduction of the general course.

Wednesday, March 31

Conferred with Miss Gambrill on her certification.

Conference with assistant superintendent on the work of two teachers, Mr. Bitson and Mr. Nelker; also on testing program.

Called in Mr. Nelker for interview.

Approved and signed eight college-entrance certificates, also twenty-nine purchase requisitions.

Followed up and straightened out apparent conflict in ticket sales for junior operetta and the athletic benefit movie show.

Conferred with Mr. Darley, the manager of athletics, on spring football, wrestling, and the athletic program in general.

Dictated several letters.

Conferred with Miss Peters on the course in cinema appreciation and the possible use of films in connection therewith.

Conferred with Miss Dille and Miss Watson on payment of bill for completion of Holy Grail mural in Room 260.

Conferred with Mr. Watts on the success of pupils in his classes in chemistry. Made graph of same to show relation of achievement to P.L.R.

Met with the athletic council to consider spring football practice.

Met with the athletic board to consider promotion of wrestling and golf as school sports.

Thursday, April 1

Conference with Mr. Court, vocational adviser, on report of his work to date; also on curriculum reorganization.

Visited all floors of building for purpose of rapid inspection.

Conferred with Miss Thatcher on possible use of books in library reported as unused.

Conferred with Miss Caldwell on the pictures of school activities available for publicity.

Met representatives of the American Legion who had come in to announce the winner in the state contest in essay-writing and to present the trophy. Introduced them at ninth-grade assembly.

Lunch 12:00-12:45 with assistant superintendent, director of personnel, and director of publications from school headquarters.

Visited various classes for an hour.

Conferred with faculty manager and coach on setting up spring football practice.

Conferred with Mr. Norton, student council adviser, on the work of the student council in setting up a budget and in recommending appropriations for next year.

Conferred with Miss Heffner as to purchase and use of phonograph records for classes in French; with Mr. Lord, of the music staff, on the purchase and use of gowns or robes for the choral club. This conference on gowns was extended to include Miss Rawlins and a salesman.

Conference with the custodian on condition of the building.

At 5:00 P.M. I looked in on a senior-high student council dance in the boys' gymnasium.

Friday, April 2

Conferences: with Miss Matson on using students in civics classes on the follow-up survey in connection with the Cooperative Study; with Miss Dille, head of the English department, and Miss Franklin, the librarian, on the disposition of the unused books in the library, also on the budget for supplementary books and the library; with Mr. Spencer, ninth-grade adviser, on guidance and choice of high-school courses in Grade IX A.

Attended tenth- and eleventh-grade assembly, presented certificates for athletic letters.

Interviewed a candidate for teaching.

Telephoned assistant superintendent in regard to Mr. Nelker's case.

Lunched with Superintendent Lake in teachers' tearoom. Showed him some recent building changes.

Conferred with three teachers of civics on assignment of Seniors from their classes to work on the follow-up of former pupils.

Conferred with Mr. Marks on the selection of achievement tests for high I.Q.'s; with Mr. Bitson on appointment and salary; with Mr. Lambert on preparation of class cards for next semester; with Miss Franklin and Miss Thatcher on unused books; with Miss Rawlins on college preparation and recommendation.

Signed college-entrance certificates.

Monday, April 12

Attended to routine office matters, bulletins, mail, etc.

Visited briefly seven home-economics classes, one mathematics class, and four English classes.

Conferences with Miss Rawlins on home-economics course, with Miss Cobbe on some changes in her classroom, with Miss Bander on curriculum, with Mr. Cullen on grouping pupils in chemistry classes.

Attended an assembly of Grade XII A; introduced Dr. Ellis, dean of Cleveland College.

Conference with Mr. Slader on contracts for use of Severance Hall for commencement; with Miss Rawlins on results of personnel work.

From 1:25 to 2:00 P.M. attended tenth-grade assembly, spoke about curriculum choices, etc.

Visited tenth-grade classes in eight classrooms, talked with pupils, and answered questions about courses.

Tuesday, April 13

Visited classes in four rooms.

Conferred with Mr. Marks on Dr. Slutz's program.

Attended to correspondence.

Attended eleventh-grade assembly, spoke about curriculum.

Visited Senior assembly, saw play presented by one of the play-production classes.

Luncheon—12:15. Child Guidance Clinic meeting at Hotel Cleveland.

2 P.M.—Principals' meeting at school headquarters. Dr. Robinson discussed European education.

Wednesday, April 14

Conferred with Miss Dart about Miss Cobbe's case, involving friction between pupils and teacher as well as between teachers.

Summarized reports of teachers on occupational information. Outlined work on this for one of the clerks.

Checked up on assembly programs, interviewing Miss Dart, Mr. Rockwell, and Mr. Grant in this connection.

Visited three classes.

Attended XII B assembly, discussed curriculum.

Visited XII A home rooms, also Home Room 262 where I discussed honor-roll problems with the girls.

Met Wallace McMann and Mr. Penton, his home-room teacher, discussed his cutting of classes. Saw his biology teacher also.

Helped get a boy on his way home because of illness.

Called assistant superintendent by telephone for information about district spelling contest.

Conferred with Miss Matson on content of course in "Business Information," also on the progress of the survey of former pupils.

Discussed P.T.A. plans with Miss Rawlins, use of P.T.A. funds, and health and physical-education program.

Conferred with Miss Barry from Nela Park with regard to the program for the teachers to be presented on the occasion of our meeting there.

Attended IX A assembly at 1:25 on the subject of curriculum choices.

Conferences with Miss Rawlins on the roller-skating club; with Miss Heffner on purchase of victrola records for French classes; with Mr. Watterson on measures of interest in biology, partly on outside reading as one of the measures.

Attended meeting of shop and drawing teachers in Room 26. Saw one of the men present a film and some slides on the teaching of mechanical drawing.

Back to the office, signed N.Y.A. applications, read bulletins on press spelling contest to discover my duties as district chairman.

Thursday, April 15

Conferred with Miss Dille on plans for spelling contest; with Mr. Marks and Miss Rawlins on examinations for high-level pupils.

Visited four classrooms.

Attended assembly at 9:55 of all high P.L.R. and honor-roll pupils, presented plan for examinations in English, social studies, and the major subject elected, for those who wished to take them.

Visited a home room of boys and discussed honor-roll methods with them.

Conferred with the principal and a teacher from another high school on methods of handling free textbooks.

Conferred with Mr. McCullough, of Alta House, on the recreational survey undertaken by the Northeast Community Council. Agreed to assist in certain ways.

Conferred with head clerk on plans for spelling contest, with Miss Matson on same, and also on mimeographing of forms for the recreational survey.

Visited class in social studies, discussed current events with pupils.

Conferred with Mr. Eck about one of his boys who needs work to help pay a hospital bill.

Conferred with assistant superintendent and Miss Dille on cost of free textbooks in English; with Mr. Spencer on approximate number of pupils in Grades VI, VII, and VIII in various schools in this district for purposes of the survey; with Miss Rawlins on plans for the honor banquet; with Miss Wendorf on the Newswriting Club; with Miss Cobbe about her difficulties with pupils and teachers.

Gave a little time to an interview with one of the substitute teachers.

Prepared a list of clubs and organizations in this school for use of the survey committee.

Friday, April 16

Set up a list of club activities, etc., for use of committee in the recreational survey.

Arranged with faculty manager to give a needy boy some work in and about athletics.

Did some more checking on enrolments in public and parochial elementary schools for use in the survey.

Conference with Miss Dunlevy on Miss Cobbe's case, also with Miss Thatcher; further conference with the latter on reading for slow pupils.

Conferences with Mr. Lambert on seating in classrooms; with school treasurer on bills; with Miss Matson on mimeographing of questionnaires for survey; with Mr. Akins on changes in curriculum.

Visited orchestra rehearsal.

Conferred with Mr. Fisher about electric connections in home-economics rooms. Visited two of these classrooms and discussed the matter with the teachers.

A representative of Fenn College came in to arrange for bulletin display board in building.

Conferred with a Senior girl on taking some college examinations.

Discussed conduct of spelling contest with Miss Dille and Mr. Marks. Telephoned general chairman of the county about same. Drafted letter to all thirty schools in the district giving instructions.

Arranged with Mr. Grant for a lecture on Monday by Slim Williams.

Attended to an urgent call for credits.

Arranged with Mr. Grant for a lecture on scientific temperance as a result of a plea from a W.C.T.U. leader.

Interviewed by a *Spotlight* reporter on new plans for special honor examinations.

Conferred with Miss Dille again on plans for spelling contest.

Approved bulletin for Monday.

HIGH-SCHOOL LETTER MEN—THEIR INTELLIGENCE AND SCHOLARSHIP

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★

A NEW INQUIRY INTO THE RELATIONSHIP

INVESTIGATIONS of the relation between scholarship and athletic participation have been made over a period of thirty years or more and in more than two hundred public and private institutions. The results, however, show such disagreement that no absolutely final decision has been made as to what this relationship is. Because in many studies insufficient and inadequate data have been used, conflicting conclusions have been reached. These discrepancies were pointed out in 1931 by Jacobsen.¹ Valid and consistent conclusions are no nearer, apparently, than they were at that date.

A brief examination of the studies indicates the reasons for divergencies. In some instances very few cases have been studied. The term "athlete" has been used with such different meanings that it is impossible to compare results. In all but one or two studies, teachers' marks have been used as the criterion of success.

The present study has attempted to profit from these earlier efforts by using a large number of cases and an objective measure of scholarship. The cases were also carefully selected and paired. Cormany's investigation² is the only other study approaching the present one in objectivity, but the groups which he studied were so small that no significant conclusions could be drawn.

¹ John M. Jacobsen, "Athletics and Scholarship in the High School," *School Review*, XXXIX (April, 1931), 280-87.

² W. J. B. Cormany, "The Effect of High-School Athletics upon Scholarship as Measured by Achievement Tests." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of West Virginia, 1934.

The investigation here reported studied the male members of the June, 1936, graduating classes in the seven public high schools for white pupils in St. Louis. Complete data were available for 888 of the 976 boys graduated. The following bases of comparison were used: (1) average marks in all subjects throughout the four-year period; (2) intelligence quotients on the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, administered to all pupils in the eighth year of the elementary school; (3) chronological age; and (4) scores on the Sones-Harry High School Achievement Test given during the last month of the Senior year.

COMPARISON OF AGE AND INTELLIGENCE

One hundred and sixty-seven of the 888 male graduates had earned their letters in at least one of the principal sports—football, basketball, baseball, and track. One hundred and twenty had earned letters in one sport only, thirty-five in two sports, and twelve in three sports. Each of these 167 boys was paired with a non-athlete from the same high school. Non-athletes were boys who had not participated in interscholastic athletics and, as far as could be determined by careful examination, had no interest in participation in athletics. The subjects were paired individually on the basis of intelligence quotient and chronological age. The large number of graduates made it possible to select almost perfect controls. In only one case was the difference between athlete and non-athlete as large as six months. In five cases there was a difference of five months. The boys were then subdivided into six groups according to the type and the number of sports in which they had participated.

The distribution of the groups is shown in Table 1. The mean intelligence quotient of the 888 male graduates is 108.2. The mean intelligence quotient of the athletes is 106.4. There are also noticeable differences in the intelligence quotients of the four sport groups. The track athletes are superior to all others, while the boys participating in baseball have the lowest intelligence quotient (100.6). The critical ratios of the differences among these athletic groups are shown in Table 2. The differences between these groups are significant in all but two comparisons: (1) basketball and football and (2) football and baseball.

SCHOLARSHIP OF THE DIFFERENT GROUPS

The scholarship of participants as measured by the mean of teachers' marks throughout the four years of their high-school careers is practically the same as that of nonparticipants. Table 3 shows slight differences in favor of the participants over the control groups in the case of football and baseball and the groups engaged

TABLE 1
CHRONOLOGICAL AGES AND INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF
ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES

GROUP	NUMBER OF CASES	CHRONOLOGICAL AGE			INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT		
		Mean (in Years and Months)	Probable Error of Mean	Standard Devia- tion	Mean	Probable Error of Mean	Standard Devia- tion
Athletes.....	167	18-3	0.57	10	106.4	0.67	12.75
Non-athletes.....	167	18-3	.62	11	106.3	.67	12.75
Remainder of graduates.....	554	18-2	.31	11	109.6	.36	12.55
All male grad- uates.....	888	18-3	0.25	11	108.2	0.29	12.85
Athletes partici- pating in:							
Track.....	80	18-0	.79	11	110.1	.93	12.30
Basketball.....	48	18-3	.96	10	106.4	1.05	10.80
Football.....	56	18-6	1.19	12	103.8	1.26	14.00
Baseball.....	42	18-6	1.26	12	100.6	1.31	12.60
Two sports....	35	18-2	1.43	13	104.2	1.43	12.55
Three sports...	12	18-4	104.9

in two and three sports. None of these differences, however, is statistically significant. Of all the participants, the mean mark of the track athletes is highest, but it is only 2.9 points above the mean of the lowest scholarship group—those participating in basketball. Previous studies have usually indicated differences in the scholarship of groups as measured by teachers' marks. In spite of the fact that these marks represent the judgments of a great many teachers over a four-year period, they are still subjective.

The pupils were further compared, therefore, on the basis of

objective tests which had been administered by the school authorities in May, 1936. Scores on the Sones-Harry High School Achievement Test were available for all pupils. Any significance that this study may have lies in the use of these objective measures.

When the groups are compared on the basis of the Sones-Harry test, consistent and somewhat substantial differences are found between the athletes and their respective control groups. In every comparison the mean score of the non-athlete group is higher than

TABLE 2
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES IN MEAN INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF 167 HIGH-SCHOOL ATHLETES PARTICIPATING IN VARIOUS SPORTS

Sports Compared	Difference	Diff. P.E. diff.
Track and:		
Basketball.....	3.7	2.6
Football.....	6.3	4.0
Baseball.....	9.5	5.9
Basketball and:		
Football.....	2.6	1.6
Baseball.....	5.8	3.5
Football and:		
Baseball.....	3.2	1.8

that of the corresponding athlete group, and, in the comparison of the whole athlete group with the control group, the difference is statistically significant.

It is interesting to compare the data on success as measured by objective tests with the data on success as measured by teachers' estimates of pupils' ability. Teachers' marks are slightly in favor of the athletes, but in no case are the differences significant. Marks on objective tests favor the non-athletes, and in all cases the differences are pronounced.

In summary, this study would indicate that (1) athletes have slightly lower intelligence than non-athletes, (2) track athletes are significantly higher in intelligence than the other athletic groups,

TABLE 3

SCHOLARSHIP OF PAIRED GROUPS OF ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES MEASURED BY (1) MEAN OF TEACHERS' PERCENTAGE MARKS OVER A FOUR-YEAR PERIOD AND (2) SCORES ON SONES-HARRY HIGH SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT TEST GIVEN IN SENIOR YEAR

GROUP	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	PROBABLE ERROR OF MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS IN FAVOR OF CONTROL GROUP	DIFF. P.E.-diff.
Teachers' Percentage Marks						
All male graduates.....	888	77.7	0.14	6.06		
Athletes.....	167	77.8	.30	5.84	0.2	0.44
Control group.....	167	78.0	.34	6.40		
Track athletes.....	80	79.2	.44	5.80	.3	.45
Control group.....	80	79.5	.49	6.48		
Basketball athletes.....	48	76.3	.57	5.84	1.5	1.83
Control group.....	48	77.8	.59	6.02		
Football athletes.....	56	77.0	.50	5.50	- 1.1	1.43
Control group.....	56	75.9	.58	6.44		
Baseball athletes.....	42	76.9	.55	5.30	- 1.1	1.39
Control group.....	42	75.8	.57	5.50		
Two-sport athletes.....	35	78.6	.72	6.28	- .6	.57
Control group.....	35	78.0	.78	6.86		
Three-sport athletes.....	12	77.4			- 1.7	
Control group.....	12	75.6				
Scores on Sones-Harry Test						
All male graduates.....	888	196.4	1.23	54.20		
Athletes.....	167	185.4	2.84	54.40	16.5	4.18
Control group.....	167	201.9	2.74	52.40		
Track athletes.....	80	199.0	4.10	54.40	14.2	2.46
Control group.....	80	213.2	4.06	53.80		
Basketball athletes.....	48	182.9	5.10	52.40	8.2	1.15
Control group.....	48	191.1	4.95	50.80		

TABLE 3—*Continued*

GROUP	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	PROBABLE ERROR OF MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS IN FAVOR OF CONTROL GROUP	DIFF. P.E. diff.
Scores on Sones-Harry Test— <i>Continued</i>						
Football athletes.....	56	179.3	4.74	52.60	13.6	2.05
Control group.....	56	192.9	4.65	51.60		
Baseball athletes.....	42	171.4	5.52	53.00	13.4	1.78
Control group.....	42	184.8	5.12	49.20		
Two-sport athletes.....	35	185.4	6.07	53.20	15.5	1.78
Control group.....	35	200.9	6.29	55.20		
Three-sport athletes.....	12	181.0	6.0
Control group.....	12	187.0		

and (3) baseball athletes as a group rank intellectually below all other groups. Even more pronounced, it would seem, is the evidence that, with intelligence held constant, the scholarship of athletes is below the scholarship of non-athletes when an objective measure is the criterion.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON

University of Pittsburgh

*

UNDER the definition of guidance employed in previous years, the literature which appeared from June, 1938, to May, 1939, inclusive, has been canvassed, and the items listed below have been selected for this bibliography. These items bear testimony to healthy progress in practice and theory. A number of references validate guidance techniques by objective methods. Others offer essential social orientation to persons who bear responsibility for counseling.

DISTRIBUTION¹

461. BENNETT, WILMA. *Occupations and Vocational Guidance—A Source List of Pamphlet Material*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1938 (third edition). Pp. 160.
Pamphlets from a wide range of sources are listed under the names of their issuing organizations. A comprehensive index lists the pamphlets according to occupations described.
462. BEST, DORIS. "Employed Wives Increasing," *Personnel Journal*, XVII (December, 1938), 212-19.
Reports a study of the status of married women as employees in factory and in office.
463. BINGHAM, WALTER V. "A National Perspective on Testing and Guidance," *Educational Record*, Supplement No. 12, XX (January, 1939), 137-50.
An interpretation of the service of testing to distributive guidance, with provocative suggestions for future development.
464. BYRNS, RUTH. "Relation of Vocational Choice to Mental Ability and Occupational Opportunity," *School Review*, XLVII (February, 1939), 101-9.
A study of approximately seventy-seven thousand high-school Seniors in Wisconsin, showing some relation of choice to ability but a serious lack of balance between occupational opportunities and the numbers choosing the occupations.

¹ See also Item 436 (Swineford) in the list of selected references appearing in the June, 1939, number of the *School Review*.

465. CALIVER, AMBROSE. *Vocational Education and Guidance of Negroes*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 38, 1937. Pp. x+138.
An extensive survey devoted in part to the revelation of the need of negroes for vocational guidance, the presentation of information useful in the formulation of guidance programs, and the portrayal of guidance practices in schools and colleges for negroes.
466. EDWARDS, ALBA M. *A Social-economic Grouping of the Gainful Workers of the United States*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. vi+264.
A new classification of occupational data issued by the United States Bureau of the Census.
467. HARTSON, L. D. "Relative Value of School Marks and Intelligence Tests as Bases for Rating Secondary Schools," *School and Society*, XLIX (March 18, 1939), 354-56.
An admissions officer in a college which practices selective admission presents data on the problem of ranking secondary schools.
468. KITSON, HARRY D., and CRANE, MARGARET. "Measuring Results of Vocational Guidance: A Summary of Attempts, 1932-1937," *Occupations*, XVI (June, 1938), 837-42.
Twenty studies are briefly summarized under "Problem," "Procedure," and "Results."
469. LINGENFELTER, MARY REBECCA. *Vocations in Fiction—An Annotated Bibliography*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1938 (revised and enlarged). Pp. 100.
For their authentic presentation of 102 present-day occupations, 463 novels are chosen. Symbols indicate whether the novel was intended for the adult, adolescent, or juvenile mind.
470. MELVIN, BRUCE L., and SMITH, ELNA N. *Rural Youth*. Works Progress Administration, Division of Social Research, Research Monograph XV. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. xx+168.
Takes up the problems of the continuing surplus of farm youth, the increasing mechanization of farming, and the inadequacy of many human services in farm areas.
471. MORGAN, VERA ELEANOR. *Vocations in Short Stories*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1938. Pp. 48.
Recent short stories which significantly reveal vocational life are indexed under 133 alphabetically arranged occupations.
472. "Motion Pictures for Teaching Occupations," *Occupations*, XVII (January, 1939), 335.
"A monthly listing of films available for classroom use," starting with the issue here cited as a regular feature of *Occupations*.

473. MURRAY, SISTER M. TERESA GERTRUDE. *Vocational Guidance in Catholic Secondary Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 754. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. viii+164.
Primarily a questionnaire study to ascertain practice, followed by appropriate recommendations.
474. *Occupational Adjustment*. Interim Report of the Occupational Education Tour for School Superintendents. New York: National Occupational Conference (551 Fifth Avenue), 1938.
An interpretation of the nature and the means of accomplishing occupational adjustment through school services, with an extended appendix describing some guidance practices in several large cities.
475. "Occupational Information and Guidance Service—Maryland State Plan Approved," *Occupations*, XVII (January, 1939), 312-14.
Excerpts from amendments to the Maryland state plan for vocational education to provide for a state supervisor of an occupational information and guidance service. Approved by the United States Office of Education, such a state plan has support from federal funds.
476. PATTERSON, FREDERICK DOUGLAS. "Vocational Education and Guidance for the Negro," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XII (January, 1939), 298-307.
An interpretative statement of the special problem of the occupational affiliation and adjustment of negroes.
477. *The Problems of a Changing Population*. Report of the Committee on Population Problems to the National Resources Committee. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. 306.
A presentation of basic trends in population, which contributes to the social perspective of the counselor.
478. SEABROOK, WILLIAM. "What Are You Fit For?" *Forum*, C (August, 1938), 63-68.
A popular account of the methods and the achievements of the Human Engineering Laboratory of the Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, New Jersey.
479. STEAD, WILLIAM H. "A Dictionary of Occupational Titles," *Occupations*, XVI (June, 1938), 846-47.
A brief description, including a sample page, of a publication being prepared by the United States Employment Service.
480. TEAD, ORDWAY. "The Social Approach to Vocational Careers," *Occupations*, XVII (April, 1939), 594-600.
An interpretation of current society with its lack of occupational opportunity.

481. WALLAR, G. A. "Use of the Occupational Orientation Inquiry," *Occupations*, XVII (January, 1939), 299-302.
Describes a new aid to the vocational interview, a form of self-appraisal blank, for use with college Freshmen.

ADJUSTMENT¹

482. BOWES, FERN H. "The Anecdotal Behavior Record in Measuring Progress in Character," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIX (February, 1939), 431-35.
An illustration of the use of the anecdotal behavior record as an instrument for bringing about personal adjustment of third-grade pupils.
483. BRAZELTON, CALANTHE. "Excessive Absence of High-School Girls," *School Review*, XLVII (January, 1939), 51-55.
Illustration of the effectiveness of case study as a means of reducing excessive absence from school.
484. CURTIS, ERTA AGNES, and NEMZEK, CLAUDE L. "The Relation of Certain Unsettled Home Conditions to the Academic Success of High School Pupils," *Journal of Social Psychology*, IX (November, 1938), 419-35.
A scientific study showing that each of the following conditions is detrimental to academic success: loss of father by death, loss of father by divorce or separation, unemployment of father, loss of mother by death, loss of mother by divorce or separation.
485. JENKINS, PHILIP R. "The Success Books: Phony Guidance?" *Clearing House*, XIII (February, 1939), 336-39.
A thoughtful analysis of "success books," with consideration of their bearing on guidance.
486. NOLTE, KARL F. "Pupil Adjustment in the Hibbing Public Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIX (January, 1939), 371-77.
A report of results obtained by the use of the Boynton B.P.C. Personal Inventory, the Torgerson Diagnosis of Pupil Maladjustment, and a program of pupil counseling.
487. RISEN, MAURICE L. "Relation of Lack of One or Both Parents to School Progress," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIX (March, 1939), 528-31.
An objective study making clear the significant relation of the lack of one or both parents to pupil adjustment and attainment.
488. STOGDILL, EMILY L., and THOMAS, MINNIE E. "The Bernreuter Personality Inventory as a Measure of Student Adjustment," *Journal of Social Psychology*, IX (August, 1938), 299-315.

¹ See also Item 401 (Wickman) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1939, number of the *School Review*.

A statistical study of college students from which it is concluded that the Bernreuter Personality Inventory appears to be helpful in discriminating between well-adjusted and maladjusted students.

489. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "The Nature and Use of Anecdotal Records." *Educational Records Supplementary Bulletin D*. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1939. Pp. 32 (mimeographed).

An illuminating exposition of "one of the most promising methods of personality study."

490. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Case-Study Procedures in Guidance," *School Review*, XLVI (October, 1938), 602-10.

A brief summary of existing knowledge of case-study technique.

491. WHITE, JOHN W., and NEMZEK, CLAUDE L. "Relation of Indigency to Scholastic Success," *School Review*, XLVII (March, 1939), 199-204.

A carefully controlled study at the junior high school level, showing that indigent pupils "make a record in achievement comparable with, or superior to, that of the non-indigent pupils."

PUBLICATIONS PERTAINING TO BOTH DISTRIBUTION AND ADJUSTMENT¹

492. ALLEN, RICHARD D. "The Costs of Guidance in a Secondary School," *Clearing House*, XIII (October, 1938), 73-77.

Exposes several fallacies in the customary methods of figuring the cost of guidance.

493. BROWN, MARION. "Educational Guidance in a Secondary School," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, II (October, 1938), 8-14.

Describes a program that is significantly coherent and comprehensive.

494. BRUNNER, EDMUND DES. "The Social Scene and Personal Adjustment," *Occupations*, XVII (April, 1939), 581-85.

An exposition of the social changes which have rendered personal adjustment difficult.

495. CHRISTENSEN, CLARA N. "Students Vote for More Guidance," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (October, 1938), 353-57.

A survey of the needs and the problems in guidance felt by high-school pupils.

496. COX, PHILIP W. L., and DUFF, JOHN CARR. *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xxvi+536.

A general treatise which makes clear the intimate integration of the guidance function with the whole work of the school. The many practical avenues of guidance service open to the teacher are described.

¹ See also Item 501 (Bell) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1938, number of the *School Review*, Item 589 (Lloyd-Jones and Smith) in the December, 1938, number of the *School Review*, Items 323 (Dixon) and 351 (Segel and Proffitt) in the April, 1939, number of the *School Review*, and Item 192 (Segel) in the April, 1939, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

497. CULBERT, JANE F., and SMITH, HELEN R. *Counseling Young Workers*. New York: Vocational Service for Juniors (95 Madison Avenue), 1939. Pp. xii+212.
Describes the program of the Junior Consultation Service of New York City, sponsored by the Vocational Service for Juniors, the State Employment Service, and the local branch of the National Youth Administration.
498. DELONG, VAUGHN R. "Establishing a Guidance Program," *American School Board Journal*, XCVI (June, 1938), 49.
A succinct presentation of practice, significant for the steps taken to enlist interest of pupils, teachers, and patrons.
499. *A Discussion Outline in Guidance*. New Brunswick, New Jersey: New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association (W. C. Compher, Treasurer, % New Brunswick Senior High School), 1938. Pp. 40.
A statement of principles of guidance which are more inclusive than those generally assumed in this selection of references. Half of the publication is devoted to a useful classified bibliography.
500. ECKERT, RUTH E., and MARSHALL, THOMAS O. *When Youth Leave School*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xviii+360.
The characteristics of school-leaving pupils in New York State are presented under such captions as "School Location of Leaving Pupils," "Aptitude for School Tasks," "Conditioning Home Factors," "Socially Important Traits and Attitudes," "Patterns of Interests," "Plans for the Future," "Present School and Work Activities." Vocational and social adjustment and leisure-time activities were also canvassed.
501. FAILOR, CLARENCE W. "Two Jobs That Don't Mix," *Nation's Schools*, XXIII (January, 1939), 22-24, 54.
Argues that the combination of guidance and administrative functions prevents the adequate discharge of either.
502. GOULD, ROSALIND. *An Experimental Analysis of "Level of Aspiration,"* Genetic Psychology Monographs, Vol. XXI, No. 1. Provincetown, Massachusetts: Journal Press, 1939. Pp. 116.
A report of research into ambitions and into attitudes toward the experiences of success and failure.
503. "Guidance in Public Schools," *Teachers College Record*, XL (October, 1938), 1-79.
An entire number devoted to guidance. The articles are as follows: "Organizing a Guidance Program," by Sarah M. Sturtevant; "The Teacher's Contribution to the Guidance of Children," by Ruth Strang; "Guidance at the Elementary Level," by Gertrude P. Driscoll; "Problems of Pupil Adjustment Requiring Counseling," by Robert C. Challman; "Mental Hygiene for Teachers," by Douglas Spencer; "What Does the Vocational Counselor Do?" by Harry D.

Kitson; "The Work of the Placement Officer," by Roy N. Anderson; "Preparation for Psychological Counseling," by Esther Lloyd-Jones. These writings are mainly interpretative in character.

504. HAHN, MILTON. "The Staff Clinic in the Pupil-Personnel Program," *School Review*, XLVII (January, 1939), 32-36.
Presents suggestions for such use of a staff clinic in taking up the cases of problem pupils as will aid in training the teachers of the school to render more effective guidance service.
505. HAHN, MILTON. "What Price Pupil-Personnel Work?" *School Review*, XLVII (May, 1939), 374-80.
An exposition of the problems of the cost of a guidance program, including consideration of many practical details.
506. *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*. Washington: National Association of Deans of Women (1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest).
A new quarterly, devoted in part to the area of educational activity comprehended by this bibliography.
507. RIGGS, LAWRENCE. "Deans and Advisers of Boys in Secondary Schools," *Teachers College Record*, XL (February, 1939), 412-22.
Reports a survey of practice and status.
508. SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. *High School and Life*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xviii+378.
A report of extensive evaluation of secondary education which offers many challenges to the guidance function, especially in chapters on "Preparation for Vocations" and "Educational and Vocational Guidance."
509. STUDEBAKER, JOHN W. "The Occupational Information and Guidance Service: A Report of Progress," *Occupations*, XVII (April, 1939), 586-93.
Description of the work of a recently established division of the United States Office of Education.
510. *Vocational Trends*. Chicago: Science Research Associates (600 South Michigan Avenue).
A new monthly magazine presenting occupational information for young people. This publication is part of a vocational-guidance service which also issues occupational monographs and other printed aids. Well sponsored, the publishing agency is a nonprofit organization.
511. WATKINS, GORDON S., and DODD, PAUL A. *The Management of Labor Relations*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xxviii+780.
A broad treatment of personnel work in industry, contributing helpful orientation to the school counselor.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

MERITS OF GENERAL VERSUS VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM.—Publication of the latest Inglis Lecture,¹ given at Harvard University by Charles Allen Prosser, director of the Dunwoody Institute of Minneapolis, Minnesota, adds another to the long list of books which have been published recently in the curriculum field. The author criticizes the present offering of the secondary school and makes suggestions for improvement.

Prosser takes the position that life-needs of youth are not being met by the public high schools in this country. He cites the fact that larger numbers of teen-age youth come to the schools each year and he says that, instead of being realistic educational agencies, most of our schools are merely custodial in nature. He blames college-entrance selective objectives for this situation, but he charges that professors impose these subjects not only because the courses serve the purposes of selection but because, believing strongly in the value of their own subjects, they feel that these subjects should be studied by all pupils whether or not the pupils plan to go to college.

Instead of attacking the problem of curriculum revision, which is based on the actual present and assured future needs of youth, "at least 95 per cent of all current proposals for the improvement of our high schools carefully avoid any direct attack on the courses of study and focus attention chiefly on devices for making them more palatable or more teachable" (p. 2). Thereafter he cites evidence, largely drawn from Thorndike's *Psychology of Learning* (*Educational Psychology*, Vol. II, 1913), Donald Starch's *Educational Psychology* (1919), and Thorndike and Gates's *Elementary Principles of Education* (1929) to show why education must meet the needs of youth if it is to be significant.

The author pleads for a 50-50 type of education in which not more than half the pupil's time will be devoted to subjects now included in the average curriculum. He urges that these be reduced to the "general" subjects that are useful for all, such as practical English (not classics like Chaucer), "qualitative" science, economics, civics, mathematics (not algebra but review of arithmetic), the social studies, and the arts. The remainder of the time he would devote to vocational education of a practical nature to fit the youth for his life-work. Because colleges now often follow the practice of allowing students to take general education for two years and then special education later, Prosser argues that

¹ Charles Allen Prosser, *Secondary Education and Life*. The Inglis Lecture, 1939. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1939. Pp. 92. \$1.00.

the youth in high school should be allowed to take general education until perhaps sixteen years of age and then to specialize. "Nothing could be more certain than that science has proven false the doctrine of general education and its fundamental theory that memory or imagination or the reason or the will can be trained as a power. When that doctrine is abandoned, as it must be, only specific education remains" (p. 19). If that is true, one wonders how Prosser can train a printer without training him in the shop where he will eventually work. As a matter of fact, if this statement be correct, it would be interesting to know whether any workers could be trained in advance.

There can be no doubt that secondary education should evaluate itself and its objectives. Prosser's arguments add weight to others given in support of that need. He pleads effectively for a consideration of the life-needs of youth. One wonders, however, how he would discover at age sixteen just who would be going to college and who would not and would therefore presumably need training in bookkeeping or tinsmithing or some other "practical" subject. Until more reliable testing techniques are developed for the purpose of determining the persons who should become bookkeepers, how can one be sure of "specific" education of the kind that Prosser advocates?

The author of the lecture has demonstrated his competence in the field of vocational education and his enthusiasm for it, but his reasoning concerning its replacing general education is complicated somewhat by the fact that his conception of general education does not at all coincide with that held by up-to-date scholars in the field. "General education" today has a meaning vastly different from the meaning that it had when the books which Prosser quoted were written. The author has apparently overlooked many of the researches which have been made in the field of general education in the past few years. He is entitled to his opinions concerning the failure of general education, but, before he convinces its advocates of the efficacy of his arguments, he must answer successfully the question, "Specific for what?" Until he does that and demonstrates the existence and the practicability of instruments which will analyze the needs of *each individual*, his arguments in favor of specific education will continue to be as vague and nebulous as most of those proposed in favor of "old-fashioned" general education—and some of those were fairly bad.

CLIFFORD HOUSTON

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BACKGROUNDS, INTERESTS, AND AMBITIONS OF BRIGHT AND DULL HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS.—The modern tendency to make the individual pupil rather than the curriculum the center of the educational program calls for increased attention to the interests and the ambitions of children at all levels of the school. A timely Doctor's dissertation¹ emanating from Teachers College, Columbia

¹ Glenn Myers Blair, *Mentally Superior and Inferior Children in the Junior and Senior High School: A Comparative Study of Their Backgrounds, Interests, and Ambitions*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 766. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. xii+88. \$1.60.

University, should therefore be of interest since its main contribution is in this field.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the differences between certain aspects of the backgrounds, the interests, and the ambitions of superior and inferior pupils in the secondary school. The study was carried on in the junior and senior high schools of Everett, Washington. A superior group and an inferior group were chosen in each of these high schools by the administration of the Otis Self-administering Test of Mental Ability and the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability. Most of the data were obtained from these groups by means of a one-page questionnaire, of which there were two slightly different forms: one for the senior high school and one for the junior high school. The scores made by the two groups on a current-events test also provided data for one section of the study.

The organization of the report tends to conform to the conventional pattern of Doctors' theses. Previous studies in the same general field and the purpose of this study are reviewed in an introductory chapter. The second chapter deals with the subjects, the data, and the method of the study. The third, fourth, and fifth chapters are devoted to presentation of the findings concerning backgrounds, interests, and ambitions, respectively. There are a chapter of summary and conclusions, a short bibliography, and a series of appendixes.

The statistical procedures involve the application of the chi-square test, finding the critical ratio (difference divided by sigma of difference), analysis of variance, and correlation. The conclusions are, for the most part, consistent with the data.

The findings with respect to background seem unimportant, for they contain little that is new. On the other hand, several of the findings concerning interests and ambitions are important and have definite guidance value. The findings in regard to interests pertain to school subjects preferred, school activities, hobbies, reading preferences, and interest in world-affairs. The findings with respect to ambitions are concerned with the educational and the vocational plans of the superior and the inferior groups. Among the most significant of the results in this part of the study are findings to the effect that the correlations between intelligence and tendency to plan for a college education and between intelligence and tendency to enter the professions and executive positions are decidedly low. The author appropriately points out that "the very low correlations found in this study between intelligence and the tendency of secondary-school pupils to plan to enter college and eventually the professions indicate the failure of education to provide proper guidance for its students" (p. 65).

A possible limitation to the study is the fact that nearly all the data were obtained from a rather brief questionnaire filled out by the high-school pupils themselves. Some of the data, especially those pertaining to background, should have been obtainable from the records of the school without the necessity of depending on the pupils for the information. The author does not state what precautions, if any, were taken to insure accuracy in the replies to the question-

naire. However, if errors occurred in the responses of individuals, some of these probably tended to cancel out because of the large number of cases (approximately 450 in each group). It seems, therefore, that considerable dependence can be placed on the group results. On the whole, the study is a useful contribution to the all-too-meager research literature that has practical implications for educational guidance.

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LAY EDUCATION FOR CONSERVING NATURAL RESOURCES.—Increased recent comment with accompanying legislation, of state and national scope, has made the American people somewhat "conservation-conscious." Perhaps in many instances this consciousness is merely a veneer of temporary acquiescence rather than the broad substratum of popular understanding which is essential for planned and enduring social change in a democratic society. Hence it is timely to have for laymen a nontechnical treatise¹ which aims to present the basic principles of conservation in such a way that the reader may gain an understanding of the problems and be in a position to deal effectively with them.

The seventeen chapters of the book are grouped into four parts. Part I consists of chapters on the character and the formation of soil, water conservation, depletion and erosion, and soil conservation. The chapters of Part II relate to forest resources, forest use and depletion, forest conservation, state and national parks, and western grazing lands. The next part concerns wild life and includes chapters on fish, game and fur resources, and "Other Useful Wild Life." The five chapters of Part IV relate to mineral resources, metals, coal, petroleum and natural gas, and nonmetallic minerals.

A significant feature of the book is the inclusion of 232 figures, 197 of which are clear photographs and the remaining 35 maps and graphs. Statistical materials appear in sentence statement, together with nine simple tables and a few other brief tabulations. Each chapter closes with a list of from ten to seventy questions. There is a twelve-page index, as well as a four-page list of supplementary readings grouped according to the topics treated in the parts of the book.

The style is simple and nontechnical. Technical terms are introduced gradually and are accompanied by textual discussion which makes them readily understandable. As in many recent publications dealing with informational material, such as popular magazines, high-school textbooks, and recent federal research studies, much can be learned directly from the pictures and their captions, with little dependence on the text. Occasional repetitions and perhaps oversimplifications occur, but hardly enough to be annoying.

The book is clearly within the reach of typical high-school Juniors. Lay

¹ A. F. Gustafson, H. Ries, C. H. Guise, and W. J. Hamilton, Jr., *Conservation in the United States*. Ithaca, New York: Comstock Publishing Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xii+446. \$3.00.

adults of comparable backgrounds in the field of natural resources should find the book appealing, whereas laymen of more extensive backgrounds should find it a convenient means of revising and supplementing their information on a subject of great social importance.

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JOURNALISM: A MEDIUM FOR SOCIAL INTEGRATION.—Teachers of journalism in secondary schools will be interested in two recent contributions to the literature of scholastic journalism.

Those teachers who have been waiting for a textbook with a more positive emphasis on the appreciation of the newspaper and its place in society than the typical textbook in journalism has given will welcome particularly *Journalism and Life*.¹

With Mitchell's statement that journalism ought to serve as a medium for social integration, most teachers of the subject will agree, but heretofore the textbooks in the field have emphasized the technical aspects of the subject and have left largely to the ingenuity of the teacher the social aspects. Consequently hundreds of high-school courses in journalism have served feebly, if at all, as mediums for social integration.

This textbook covers thoroughly the topics which have become traditional in state and local courses of study in journalism: the gathering, the writing, and the editing of news; editorial-writing; features; makeup; business management; advertising; and circulation. In addition, the author has devoted an entire section of the book to a discussion of "Newspapers and Society," in which appear chapters dealing with the historical backgrounds of American journalism and with libel, freedom of the press, public opinion, community service of the modern newspaper, and the specialized fields of journalism. It is in this section that the author has made a distinctive and valuable contribution. Approximately a third of the book is devoted to the special problems of school publications, including the newspaper, the yearbook, and the handbook. Secondary-school administrators would find it profitable to read the chapter on publicity.

Each chapter is followed by a list of suggestive exercises, many of which show originality and reflect the classroom experience of the author in presenting certain phases of scholastic journalism. In addition to selected references in connection with each chapter, the author has included a comprehensive selected bibliography and has furnished a selected glossary of newspaper and journalistic terms. Carefully chosen examples supplement the words of the author throughout the book.

Journalism and Life should be examined carefully by all teachers of second-

¹ Dwight Emerson Mitchell, *Journalism and Life*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1939. Pp. xiv+478. \$1.50.

ary-school journalism who are attempting to make the course interesting, dynamic, valuable, and socially important.

Published as a guide for pupils actively engaged in editing the high-school newspaper, the Spears-Lawshe book¹ is a carefully prepared course of study built around the school paper. It will particularly interest teachers whose classes publish the school paper as a class project.

High-School Journalism is organized on a weekly work-sheet assignment basis and covers material for a two-semester sequence, one semester for the beginning student and the other for the advanced news-writer. A laboratory-type procedure is recommended by the authors for the most effective use of this book. An unusually large number of possible assignments are given by the authors, and the book is profusely illustrated. In the hands of an experienced teacher, the book will be of real value. As a guide to the practical problems of publishing a school newspaper, the volume has considerable merit.

Every teacher of journalism and every secondary-school administrator should read the chapter in which the authors discuss the school news bureau, particularly the description of the news bureau of the Bosse High School, Evansville, Indiana. Not many high schools have attempted a program of this type, which has much value not only for the pupils who are gaining the experience but also for the school itself.

R. E. BLACKWELL

Western Reserve University

CICERO SPEAKS TO 1939.—An excellent illustration of the current trend in Latin textbooks to emphasize the conformity of their materials with the problems and the spirit of our own age is to be found in the third-year book of Lord and Woodruff.² The authors have stressed the similarity of the crises in government, economics, and personal relations faced by the ancient Romans with those of the modern world. They have sought to extend the pupil's critical understanding of such problems through his study of them in relation to another people in another time and through carefully drawn analogies with our own period. The same emphasis on the vital contributions which the Latins have to offer the average American of today appears in the word study, where the connections between Latin forms and ordinary English words are made clear and easily usable. This adaptation of both reading content and linguistic training to the interest and the needs of the pupils is an aid to the teacher who strives through Latin to enrich the cultural background of his pupils and to develop in them logical discrimination and ease of expression.

Unlike older textbooks for third-year Latin, this book contains many materials other than Cicero's *Orations*. In the first section appear passages from

¹ Harold Spears and C. H. Lawshe, Jr., *High-School Journalism*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. xvi+464. \$2.00.

² Louis E. Lord and Laura Bayne Woodruff, *Latin—Third Year*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1939. Pp. xii+540+128. \$2.04.

Livy, some of Pliny's stories, and several myths of Hyginus. Part III is made up of certain of Cicero's and Pliny's letters. The English chapters which introduce or connect these sections are filled with interesting information, presented in a fresh, vigorous fashion, on Roman life and customs. Cicero's *Orations*, which appear in the second part, are introduced in a novel manner; they are inserted at suitable points in Sallust's history of the conspiracy. This arrangement gives the pupil the necessary historical background for an understanding of the charges against Catiline. The Sallust text is designed to be read for comprehension only and, together with certain passages from the *Orations* set off for sight reading, offers a desirable variety of reading material of differing degrees of difficulty.

Latin—Third Year contains all the materials recommended for this level by the New York State syllabus and the College Entrance Examination Board. The words stressed for mastery in the third year are given at the bottom of the page on which they first appear and are starred in the general vocabulary. Excellent notes, including many comments and questions on word study, appear also on each page of the text. The Appendix, with its sections on forms for reference, syntax, abbreviations, and word formation, is adequate and well arranged. The exercises, which are based on the text and which stress constructions recommended for third-year mastery, demonstrate the ability of the authors to adapt this material to the interests of their pupils. The many well-chosen illustrations serve to explain and vivify Roman life. Especially happy selections are the cartoons by Paul F. Berdanier. Another helpful feature of the book is the ample amount of suggested collateral reading in history, fiction, and drama. Some teachers may miss the long English synopses which in many textbooks preface passages from Cicero, and others will find the number and the scope of the maps inadequate.

This book gives evidence throughout of true scholarship and effective practical teaching experience on the part of its authors. It offers an illuminating picture of a great civilization and a critical study of some of the important personalities produced by that civilization. It demonstrates the fascination of word forms and their history and of shifting meanings. Above all, it presents this material in a clear but interesting fashion and in a manner adapted to students of average as well as superior ability.

VERA L. PEACOCK

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THE FUNDAMENTALS OF MAJOR SPORTS.—The Barnes Dollar Sports Library¹ has provided in individual volumes, each containing approximately a hundred pages, simple and clear descriptions of the fundamentals of baseball, basketball, football, and track and field events. These books enable a physical-

¹ The Barnes Dollar Sports Library: *Baseball* by Daniel E. Jessee, pp. 92; *Basketball* by Charles C. Murphy, pp. 94; *Football* by W. Glenn Killinger, pp. 142; *Track and Field* by Ray M. Conger, pp. 94. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1939. \$1.00 each.

education teacher or an athletic coach to review, in a short period of time, the fundamentals of each of these sports. They should be useful also to other persons who are interested in gaining a better understanding of the fine points of sports' techniques.

Each of these books contains a short, introductory statement telling something of the history and the importance of the sport that is being explained. Two of the books contain seven chapters; one has nine chapters; and one contains ten chapters. In most instances each chapter is devoted to the discussion of one important, fundamental sport skill. Each volume contains several photographs that are used to illustrate tactical situations. A large number of charts and diagrams are provided to help in the explanation of formation and plays, and about twenty-five drawings are included in each volume to illustrate athletic skills. The techniques and the strategy described are those that are generally accepted as standard by experienced coaches.

Questions for discussion and true-false test questions are provided at the end of each chapter. The subject matter seems to be well selected and written in a manner that can be easily understood. The material is well edited and does not appear to have been dictated, prepared by ghost writers, or otherwise hastily and carelessly done. In this respect, at least, these books are a distinct improvement over much of the literature on athletics.

Each of these volumes has been printed from the plates of *The Book of Major Sports* edited by William L. Hughes. The printing of the discussion of each sport in small, separate volumes will probably prove to be a wise procedure. There are many athletic coaches as well as other persons who are primarily interested in only one sport, and these small books at a low price will help to meet their needs.

JACKSON R. SHARMAN

University of Alabama

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

ATKINSON, CARROLL. *Development of Radio Education Policies in American Public School Systems*. Edinboro, Pennsylvania: Edinboro Educational Press, 1939. Pp. vi+280. \$1.50.

BUTTERWECK, JOSEPH S., and MUZZEY, GEORGE A. *A Handbook for Teachers: An Integrating Course for Classroom Teachers in Secondary Schools*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xx+218. \$2.25.

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- Monroe. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. xiv+330. \$3.15.
- ECKERT, RUTH E., and MARSHALL, THOMAS O. *When Youth Leave School*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xviii+360. \$3.00.
- EDWARDS, NEWTON. *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth: A National Responsibility*. A Report to the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1939. Pp. x+190. \$2.00.
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- FAY, JAY WHARTON. *American Psychology before William James*. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 1939. Pp. x+240. \$2.50.
- FLETCHER, B. A. *The Next Step in Canadian Education: An Account of the Larger Unit of School Administration*. Studies of the Institute of Public Affairs at Dalhousie University. Toronto, Canada: Macmillan Co. of Canada, Ltd., 1939. Pp. xvi+202. \$2.00.
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- JUDD, CHARLES H. *Educational Psychology*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939. Pp. xx+566. \$2.25.
- Local Broadcasts to Schools*. Edited by Irvin Stewart. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. viii+240. \$2.00.
- MORTON, ROBERT LEE. *Teaching Arithmetic in the Elementary School: Vol. III, Upper Grades*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1939. Pp. x+470. \$2.80.
- NELSON, ESTHER MARION. *An Analysis of Content of Student-teaching Courses for Education of Elementary Teachers in State Teachers Colleges*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 723. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. viii+332. \$3.15.
- NORTON, T. L. *Public Education and Economic Trends*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1939. Pp. 196. \$1.50.
- PROSSER, CHARLES ALLEN. *Secondary Education and Life*. The Inglis Lecture, 1939. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1939. Pp. 92. \$1.00.

- REARICK, ELIZABETH C. *Dances of the Hungarians*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 770. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. viii+152. \$2.10.
- ROEMER, JOSEPH, and HOOVER, OLIVER. *The Dean of Boys in High School: His Qualifications and Functions*. New York: American Book Co., 1939. Pp. viii+94. \$1.00.
- SALISBURY, FRANK SEELY. *Human Development and Learning: An Interpretive Introduction to Psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xviii+514. \$3.00.
- SEARS, PAUL B. *Life and Environment: The Interrelations of Living Things*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. xx+176. \$1.85.
- STOLPER, B. J. R., and FENN, HENRY C. *Integration at Work: Six Greek Cities: An Experience with Social Studies, Literature, and Art in the Modern High School*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. viii+166. \$1.85.
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- TIEGS, ERNEST W. *Tests and Measurements in the Improvement of Learning*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939. Pp. xxii+490. \$2.75.
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- WEBB, L. W., and SHOTWELL, ANNA MARKT. *Testing in the Elementary School*. Revised edition of *Standard Tests in the Elementary School*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1939. Pp. xx+408. \$2.75.
- WILLIAMSON, E. G. *How To Counsel Students: A Manual of Techniques for Clinical Counselors*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xx+562. \$3.75.
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BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ALLEN, ROSS L. *Real Living: Book I, A Health Workbook for Boys in Junior High Schools*, pp. 106; *Book II, A Health Workbook for Boys in Senior High Schools*, pp. 68. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1939. \$0.50 each.
- The American Way Series. *Our Schools* by Howard Cummings and Everett B. Sackett, pp. xiv+216; *Our Use of the Land* by Ayers Brinser with the assistance of Ward Shepard, pp. xvi+304. New York: Harper & Bros., 1939. \$1.40 each.

- AMES, JESSE H., AMES, MERLIN M., and STAPLES, THOMAS S. *Our Land and Our People: The Progress of the American Nation*. St. Louis, Missouri: Webster Publishing Co., 1939. Pp. xiv+690. \$1.80.
- BARBER, SARA M. *Speech Education*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1939. Pp. xii+486. \$1.60.
- CHADSEY, CHARLES E., WEINBERG, LOUIS, and MILLER, CHESTER F. *America in the Making: From Wilderness to World Power*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1939. Pp. xviii+720+xlvi. \$1.76.
- Dances of Our Pioneers*. Collected by Grace L. Ryan. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1939 (second edition). Pp. 196. \$2.00.
- EDGREN, HARRY D., and ROBINSON, GILMER G. *Group Instruction in Tennis and Badminton*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1939. Pp. viii+100. \$1.00.
- GREENBERG, JACOB. *Le Français et la France*, Premier cours. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1939. Pp. xiv+434. \$1.48.
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- JONES, EASLEY S. *Live English: Book I, A Basic Text in Forming Language Habits: Writing, Sentence Sense, Paragraph Sense, Speaking, Reading, Using Books as Tools, Grammar, Spelling, Clear and Correct Manuscript, Habits of Courtesy and Accuracy, Clear Thinking*, pp. xviii+386, \$1.32; Book II, A Basic Text in Forming Language Habits: Speaking, Reading, Using Books as Tools, Writing, Spelling, Punctuating, Organizing, Securing Realness and Aliveness in Expression, Thinking Concretely and Clearly, pp. xx+366, \$1.32; Books I and II combined, pp. xxviii+644, \$1.80. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1939.
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- KINNEMAN, JOHN A., and ELLWOOD, ROBERT S. *Living with Others*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939. Pp. xii+532+vi. \$1.00.
- LAW, FREDERICK HOUK. *Civilization Builders*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. x+356. \$1.32.
- LENNES, N. J. *New Practical Mathematics*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. x+426.
- LORD, LOUIS E., and WOODRUFF, LOURA BAYNE. *Latin—Third Year*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1939. Pp. xii+540+128. \$2.04.
- MEYERS, J. G., HAMER, O. STUART, and GRISSO, LILLIAN. *The Old World and Its Gifts*. Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1939. Pp. viii+552. \$1.96.
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